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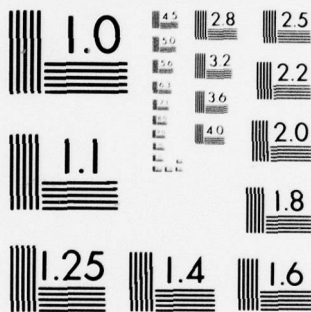
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This study presents data on central life interests and sources of attachment
to work obtained from a sample of career army officers. Results of tabula-
tions and statistical analysis showed that:

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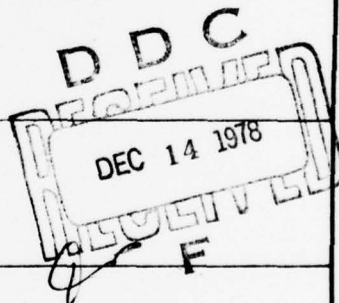
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1. Half of the officers who participated in the study had no preference regarding their central life interest orientation, one-third were non-job oriented, while only one in six had a job-oriented central life interest.
2. The great majority of the respondents had a non-job-oriented central life interest in terms of their preferred locale for experiencing their informal relations and general personal satisfactions. On the other hand, half were job-oriented relative to their preferred locale for formal organizational and technological experiences.
3. The three most important sources of attachment to work were "challenging or interesting work," "take home pay," and "Army benefits," in that order.
4. The relationship between the ranking of the top 25 items identified as sources of attachment to work and central life interest orientation was found to be not statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Interpretation of these results are discussed in terms of changes taking place in the army and society, and the officers' career experiences.

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A STUDY OF CENTRAL LIFE INTERESTS AND SOURCES OF
ATTACHMENT TO WORK AMONG U.S. ARMY OFFICERS

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Final Report: 9 May 1978

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A STUDY OF CENTRAL LIFE INTERESTS AND SOURCES
OF ATTACHMENT TO WORK AMONG
U. S. ARMY OFFICERS

by

Eugene S. Andrews

B. S. Boston University 1962
M. S. Syracuse University 1972

DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education in the
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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND THE PROBLEM

Then a ploughman said, Speak to
us of work.

And he answered, saying:

You work that you may keep pace
with the earth and the soul of
the earth.

For to be idle is to become a
stranger unto the seasons, and
to step out of life's procession,
that marches in majesty and proud
submission towards the infinite.

-- Kahlil Gibran
The Prophet

Introduction

↓ This dissertation is concerned with the special
view of man's interaction with his work environment.
Specifically, it is a study of the extent to which
work is a central life interest (Dubin, 1956) of mili-
tary personnel. ↙

Work is defined herein as:

. . . continuous employment, in the pro-
duction of goods and services for remun-
eration. This definition has three ele-
ments: (A) that work is continuous;
(B) that it results in production of
goods and services; and (C) that work is
performed for pay. (Dubin, 1958, p. 4)

Prior to the Protestant Reformation, man's work was oriented almost totally to providing sustenance. However, because of the Reformation, the significance of work was elevated from a method of solely providing for material needs to an end in itself. It was raised to a level of religious duty (Green, 1968, p. 77). Work became a way of serving God, the religious path to salvation. Work viewed in this context would "ease guilt and lead to a good and pious life" (Mills, 1973, p. 7). Idleness, on the other hand, was viewed as "an unnatural and evil evasion" (Mills, 1973, p. 7).

From all of this has evolved the work ethic; a system of values that has significantly influenced the growth and development of this nation. It is a value system that is still very much alive, evidence for which can be found in what seems to be the prevalent negative community attitude toward those on welfare.

Beyond the work ethic, the importance and centrality of work is also viewed in other terms. It is generally considered as a fundamental determinant of the way we live (Best, 1973, p. 1). This view is repeatedly reinforced in the many interviews reported in Terkel's (1975) book Working. Very few people could

could talk about who they were without reference to their work. Work plays a crucial role in the formulation of our self-esteem, identity, and sense of order. Work also provides us with a place to form friendships as well as conferring social status on our families.

Ginzberg (1962, p. 21), after studying man's relation to work for over twenty years, summed up the importance and centrality of work in this manner:

Work regulates the life of the individual;
individual's feelings about their work
can determine the future of their families . . . of their countries . . . of
our world.

However, in spite of this and the traditional emphasis on the work ethic, there is ample evidence that the centrality of work as a social institution is on the decline. A sampling of this evidence follows.

Green (1968, p. 138) suggests a shift toward a growing interest in leisure time activities. He traces the genesis of this phenomenon to the industrialization of society and the accompanying mass production methods. In his view, the assembly line engendered labor as opposed to work. Green's contention is that work is meaningful because the product of work is used for other things; whereas, labor is meaningless to man

because the product of labor is used for consumption and is unterminable (1968, p. 24).

Green (1968, pp. 125-29) describes labor as a human investment that lacks potential and is found in jobs without hope. Work, on the other hand, is an activity of hope and potency. When the job provides little hope, man will turn to other activities, e.g., leisure. Green regards work and leisure as related to man's "quest for potency." This is not too unlike Maslow's definition of self-actualization:

It [self-actualization] refers to man's desire for self-fulfillment, namely, to the tendency for him to become actualized in what he is potentially. This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one idiosyncratically is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming. (Maslow, 1970, p. 46)

Best (1973, p. 10) also views this shift in the centrality of work as a product of industrialization. He feels that the assembly line struck a mighty blow to the ideal of craftsmanship; pride in the product being made and the process of creation diminished. In the worker's mind, work became detached from the product of the work. The worker, to an increasing degree, was no longer free to control his own working action. To

a great extent, the potential for developing his capacities and skills had been significantly curtailed. As the ideal of craftsmanship faded, there emerged a distinct split between work and nonwork activities. "My work is my life" was changing to something like "well, it's [work] a living."

Some attribute the growing affluence of our society as the primary contributor to the decline of the centrality of work. Dubin (1977, p. 2) cites both affluence and man's accompanying concern with consumerism as leading to the development of central life interests in nonwork institutions.

Ginzberg (1962, p. 22) points out that because of affluence, there has been a major transformation in the role of work in contemporary life. The masses now have options regarding the kind of life they want to lead. They can decide whether to invest a major part of their energies in a job or channel it toward some other activity. Ginzberg also notes that for the first time, the masses also have the free time to make such options meaningful.

Major Concepts

Dubin (1976, pp. 10, 11) makes the point that simple societies usually have one focal institution that dominates all other social institutions. He states that historians of western societies have traditionally regarded the production institution of modern urban-industrial society as the focal institution for all others. Its influence has been pervasive, eclipsing the preëminence of the church and even overshadowing the family.

Important as the production institution may be, Dubin believes that using the focal institution model is inadequate as a basis for understanding the relationship between work and other social institutions. The alternative model he proposes is the multi-equal institutions model.

The term "multi-equal institutions" emphasizes that:

There may be several or many institutions having significant impact on behaviors that are equally salient for the individual, whether or not these behavioral demands are consistent with each other or made so by the dominance of a focal institution. (Dubin, 1976, p. 11)

The concept of multi-equal social institutions gives us the opportunity to broaden our understanding of the shift in the centrality of work. Through the use of this model, we can readily see that there are indeed other institutions available to absorb some of the energy and effort that has been previously dedicated to the production institution.

Although work is considered a primary social institution, it apparently must compete with and is interdependent with other social institutions of importance. This, coupled with evidence of erosion of the work ethic, brings into question the prominence of the institution of work in a modern industrial society, and whether or not it is a central life interest of workers.

Over the past 20 years, a number of studies have been conducted on the central life interests of workers (Dubin, 1976, p. 283). A general finding is that there is considerable variance in the extent to which workers reported that work is their central life interest.

A central life interest is defined as:

The focal arena of individual preferences for behaving, given a choice of behavioral settings. An individual may be said to have a central life interest in work when he chooses the work setting as the preferred locale for behaviors that have approximate equal likelihood of being carried out in nonwork settings. (Dubin & Goldman, 1972, p. 133)

The general idea is that individuals will concentrate most of their interest in a single or a few institutions around which most of their activities are focused. The strongest affective investment will be made in the central life interest institution(s) (Faunce & Dubin, 1973, pp. 299-310). If the institution is not a central life interest, one's participation will be primarily instrumental, e.g., one may hold a job for only pay purposes. Participation will also be characterized by a lack of emotional involvement.

The concept of central life interest is significant, particularly in light of the development of humanistic approaches to management. Efforts at participative management or developing primary group relations at work may not be very productive, if, as the evidence seems to indicate, social developments are such that the institution of work is losing ground in its centrality. If this is in fact the nature of current social developments,

it may be more useful for management to focus attention on enhancing those features of work which workers identify as being important instead of force feeding well intended, but presumptuous, management innovations?

Dubin, Hedley, and Taveggia (1976, p. 283) have reported that although a significant proportion of workers indicated that their job was not a central life interest, the results of Dubin's original study, and subsequent studies by others, suggest that employees do develop strong bonds of attachment to work. They define attachments to work as "the linkages that persons develop to features of their work environment" (Dubin et al., 1976, p. 289).

They have proposed that:

Attachment is made to those parts of the social environment in which choices for personal action exists. (Dubin et al., 1976, p. 285)

This proposal is designed to go a step beyond some of the currently recognized models and theories of man-work linkages. Dubin et al. (1976, pp. 286, 287) feel that what is needed is an eclectic model of attachment to work, one that takes into consideration the many features of work suggested by some of the traditional theorists such as Taylor (1911), Lewin (1948), Maslow (1970),

Herzberg (1957), McGregor (1960), and others. Generally speaking, some of these features include: job design, organizational structure, decision making processes, financial payoffs, and self-actualization.

Their eclectic theory of attachment to work is an attempt to "span the many dimensions of work to discover whether each provides to the individual an opportunity for attachment to work" (Dubin et al., 1976, p. 288).

In summary, the two major concepts addressed in this study are central life interests and work attachment. More specifically, it deals with identifying the preferred locale for individual behavior, given a choice of behavioral settings. The study is also concerned with identifying linkages that individuals develop to features of their work environment.

Problem Statement

Broadly speaking, this study is an extension of Dubin's (1956) investigation of central life interests and work attachment developed in a civilian industrial setting to a military setting. This is of conceptual importance, as it will generate new and

heretofore unpublished information regarding central life interests and work attachment theory.

The specific problem is as stated in the following question: What is the configuration of central life interests among U. S. Army officers and what are their sources of attachment to work?

To date, the results of the original studies conducted by Dubin et al. and subsequent replications indicate that work is a central life interest for less than 20 per cent of the persons at the worker level, and less than 50 per cent of American middle managers (Dubin, 1977, p. 9). However, none of these studies on central life interest and work attachment have involved military personnel. Because of the uniqueness of the military organization, it is an open question whether or not a study on central life interests in the military will yield results similar to those found in business and industry.

The military is different from business and industry in many ways. The most obvious difference can be found in the fundamental task the military is required to perform. "The function of the military is successful armed combat" (Huntington, 1976, p. 526).

Janowitz (1960, p. 21), in making the distinction between military and nonmilitary organizations, states that: "That the unique character of the military establishment derives from the requirement that its members are specialists in making use of violence and mass destruction."

The possibility of hostilities is a permanent organizational reality. Because of this, the military expends much of its effort in training and preparation for an uncertain future. In fact, it is estimated that the typical professional officer spends almost 25 per cent of his career in school or training situations (Janowitz & Little, 1974, p. 82).

The military requires an uncommon sense of duty and honor to accomplish its objectives (Janowitz, 1960, p. 35). Throughout the recruit's training and socialization process, these ideals are continually emphasized. The teaching of ideals within the military is considered the "most vital of all teaching . . . an instrument of national survival" (Department of Defense, n.d., p. 13). Very simply, service in the military requires a mind set and commitment quite different from most civilian organizations and occupations. This is exemplified

in the following quote of Charles Burton Marshall:

The specialty of the military profession inheres not in the technical matters only, but in a basic moral requirement relevant to command and obedience. . . . A carpenter ordered to work on wood that will ruin his tools can say no. A tenor called on to attempt consecutive high C's in such numbers as to crack his tone thereafter can probably decline. A sergeant told to turn out his men for a patrol that will probably be the last duty for most or all of them must comply. (Hauser, 1976, p. 543)

Another significant difference between the military and business and industry can be found in the lifestyle of the military. The military, in many respects, is almost a "total institution" (Goffman, 1961, p. 4). The fence that very often surrounds the military base and the uniformed guard at the gate symbolizes its separateness from the civilian communities adjacent to it.

The characteristic separateness between place of work and place of residence typically found in business and industry is, for the most part, not found in the military. Instead, the military is usually a relatively closed community which is characterized with an integration of professional and residential life (Janowitz,

1960, p. 177). Very often the soldier both lives and works on a military post.

The uniqueness of the military can also be found in the phrase: "The Army takes care of its own." The military is uncommonly paternalistic. In addition to the pay, fringe benefits, and health benefits provided by most civilian organizations, the military also feeds, clothes, shelters, and even buries its own.

Another distinctive aspect of the military is the emphasis that is placed on primary group relationships, particularly in combat units. According to Hays and Thomas (1967, p. 223):

At most times, but especially in combat he [the American soldier] is a member of a group in which he is more intimately and totally involved than if he were in a civilian environment. He lives and socializes with the same group with which he works. All of his fortunes are more or less bound up in the same packet.

This promotes a kind of spirit that very often exceeds that which is found on some of the most competitive athletic teams.

This is a study of people at work in an organization and social context which differs substantially from the organizational and work assumptions underlying

the development of central life interests and work attachment theory. Because of these very significant organizational and work differences, there is new knowledge to be gained from a study of the central life interests and work attachment of military personnel. This knowledge will be discussed in terms of the uniqueness of the Army as an organization.

Research Questions

The specific research questions to be addressed in this study include:

1. What proportion of officers will be classified as having a central life interest that is either job-oriented, has no preference, or non-job-oriented?
2. What proportion of officers will be classified as job-oriented, having no preference, or non-job-oriented with respect to the following central life interest sub-categories: informal group experiences, general personal satisfactions, formal organizational experiences, and technological experiences?

3. What is the relationship between total central life interest orientation and the orientation of respondents in each of the central life interest subcategories?
4. Is there a significant relationship between the officers' central life interest orientation and specific demographic variables?
5. What is the relationship between central life interest orientation and job satisfaction?
6. What are the top 25 features of work identified as important on the Work Attachment questionnaire?
7. Is there a significant relationship between the demographic variables and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items?
8. Is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items?
9. Is there a relationship between central life interest orientation and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items?

10. What are the ranking differences of work attachment items when comparing officers with different central life interest orientations?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

In this chapter attention is focused on a review of several conceptual models which various theorists have developed to explain the phenomenon of individual-organizational linkages. Particular attention is given to Etzioni's (1961) compliance theory as being an integrative model that effectively conceptualizes individual-organizational linkages. Following this, the theoretical framework that underlies Dubin's (1956) theory of central life interests is discussed in terms of being a conceptual model that operationalizes individual-organizational linkages. This discussion is supplemented with a critical review of the various central life interests studies conducted to date. Also included in this chapter is a discussion of work attachment theory.

Individual-Organizational Linkages

Today, much of the work that is done takes place primarily in organizational settings. The individual

craftsman, for the most part, has been replaced by groups of workers responding to the dictates of an organization. Accordingly, a question that is frequently asked is: What is the nature of individual-organizational linkages?

Porter and Dubin define individual-organizational linkages as involving two broad attitudinal and behavioral categories:

(1) The acts of joining and remaining employed by the organization--in effect, becoming contractually involved and staying so involved; and (2) The degree of attachment the person has while in the employment situation. (1975, p. 1)

A number of theories have been developed in the various academic disciplines to address the question of individual-organizational linkages. Many of these theories include conceptual models that are based on either a psychological or sociological perspective. Some prominent theorists who address the phenomenon in question from a psychological point of view include Levinson (1962), Herzberg (1966), Katz and Kahn (1966), and Barrett (1970).

Levinson's approach to individual-organizational linkages is grounded in a conceptual model that focuses

on a process of reciprocity involving the organization and its members. This process is the result of a "psychological" or "unwritten contract" between the two parties. Levinson defines the psychological contract as "a series of mutual expectations of which the parties to the relationship may not themselves be even dimly aware but which nonetheless govern their relationship to each other" (Levinson, 1962, p. 21).

These mutual expectations are, for the most part, implicit, unspoken, and frequently antedates the relationship of person and the organization. The psychological contract is not a static occurrence. Day to day work experiences within the organization affirm, alter, or negate the contract. Further, the psychological contract is not just a two-party (individual-organization) arrangement; it also involves contracts of lesser proportions involving interpersonal, intra and inter-group relationships.

Reciprocation involves the continuous fulfillment of the psychological contract between the organization and its employees. Levinson states that:

In the process the employee resolves conflict about interdependence, balanced distance [between self and other organizational members], and change as part of his effort to attain and maintain an adult occupational identity. As these conflicts are being resolved, their resolution contributes to the solution of many of the company's problems related to people and organizational objectives. . . . In short, reciprocation is a process which ties man and organization together for the accomplishment of their mutual tasks and the resolution of their mutual conflicts. (1962, p. 131)

Herzberg's conceptual model is one that focuses on the motivational aspects of individual-organizational linkages. As a result of a study he conducted, Herzberg concluded that man has two categories of needs that are independent of each other and differentially affect behavior. He found that when people were dissatisfied with their jobs, they were concerned about their working environment. On the other hand, when people felt good about their jobs, it was a result of the work itself.

Herzberg called the first category of needs hygiene factors, because they describe the work environment and serve to prevent job dissatisfaction. They are not an intrinsic part of the job, but are related to conditions under which the work has to be done.

Hygiene factors include such things as organizational policies and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, money, status, and security. These factors produce no increase in worker output, but do serve to prevent any slippage in worker performance.

Herzberg called the second category of needs motivation factors since they seem to motivate workers to improve their performance. These "motivators," or satisfying factors, involve feelings of achievement, recognition for accomplishment, challenging work, increased responsibility, and growth and development. Unlike hygiene factors, motivators are capable of having a positive effect on job satisfaction and worker output. The essence of Herzberg's theory is that:

Hygiene needs, when satisfied, tend to eliminate dissatisfaction and work restriction but do little to motivate an individual to superior performance or increased capacity. Satisfaction of the motivators, however, will permit an individual to grow and develop in a mature way, often implementing an increase in ability. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1972, p. 58)

The conceptual model developed by the social psychologists, Katz and Kahn (1966) concerns the taking

of organizational roles. They state that:

The concept of role is . . . the major means for linking the individual and organizational levels of research and theory; it is at once the building block of social systems and the summation of the requirements with which such systems confront their members as individuals. (1966, p. 197)

They contend that each individual in the organization is linked with other members as a result of the functional requirements of the organization's system of operations. Because of this, organizations can then be viewed as consisting of a number of role sets, with each member of the organization belonging to one or more role sets. Katz and Kahn describe a role set as occurring when "each member of an organization is directly associated with a relatively small number of others, usually the occupants of offices adjacent to his in the work-flow structure or in the hierarchy of authority" (1966, p. 174).

The manifested organizational behavior is viewed as deriving from the expectations members of a role set have of their fellow members, and is described in terms of role episodes. A role episode "consists of a sequence of events involving members of a role set and the focal

person" (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 197). The first half of the role episode involves communication of role expectations from an individual sender or a number of them to the focal person. The second half involves the manner in which the communication is perceived by the focal person and his resulting behavior. The actions of the focal person are observed and evaluated in relation to their needs and expectations, thus ending the cycle and initiating another..

In sum, the nature of individual-organizational linkages, as put forth in the Katz and Kahn model, is based on the role an individual has in an organization, what others expect of the individual occupying that role, the individual's reaction to these expectations, and the group's evaluation of the individual's reaction.

Barrett (1970) is another social psychologist that has proposed a conceptual model that focuses on the nature of individual-organizational linkages. He makes use of the goal integration approach, which is based on three models that explain how individual goals and organizational objectives may be achieved simultaneously. The three goal integration models are the exchange model, the socialization model, and the

accommodation model.

The exchange model involves a direct bargaining relationship between the organization and the individual. The organization helps the individual in the attainment of some of his goals, and the individual devotes some of his time and effort to assist the organization in the attainment of its objectives. The use of pay to motivate individuals to engage in organizational output activities would be an integration mechanism falling under the exchange model category.

In the second approach, the socialization model, "goal integration is achieved by influencing the individual to adopt some of the organization's objectives as personal goals or to give up personal goals that conflict with organizational objectives" (Barrett, 1970, p. 97). Socialization occurs as a result of the formal leader or members of a peer group persuading or somehow influencing the behavior of the individual. For example, an Army recruit experiences socialization when he goes through basic training and learns the values, goals, and norms of the Army.

The third integrative approach is the accommodation model. Under this approach "the emphasis is on

taking individual goals as given and attempting to design the roles and processes needed for attaining organizational objectives in such a way that these individual goals can be achieved" (Barrett, 1970, p. 98). Examples of accommodations include such things as designing jobs or roles with the needs of the individual in mind, or allowing individuals to participate in decision-making processes.

In his study of goal integration in organizations, Barrett found that "the degree of goal integration that exists in an organization or sub-unit is significantly associated with the quality of organizational functioning and with the way in which individuals react to their membership in the organization" (1970, p. 98). Based on the results of his study, Barrett concludes that the concept of goal integration is useful in explaining variables that influence the relationship between individuals and organizations.

Some major theorists who present conceptual models which address the question of individual-organizational linkages from a sociological perspective include Weber (1946), Gouldner (1957), and Etzioni (1961).

Weber's conceptual model of individual-organizational linkages is representative of classical organization theory. For the most part, it can be viewed in terms of official-bureaucracy linkages. Specifically, the business of bureaucracies is conducted by persons with official duties/positions, and their organizational activity is generally governed by various rules and regulations.

Weber (1946, pp. 198-204) views the individual officials as being involved in the organization by:

1. Accepting a specific obligation of faithful management in return for a secure existence;
2. Enjoying a distinct social esteem in comparison with the governed;
3. Holding his position for life;
4. Receiving compensation according to rank;
5. Being set for a career within the hierarchical order; and
6. Possessing an attitude set of precise obedience.

Although there are economic and esteem benefits for the individual, the linkage bias is certainly in favor of the organization.

Modern organizations have used rational criteria such as skill and competence in integrating and maintaining the individual in the organization. Gouldner (1957) has suggested a less rational and less visible criteria. He believes that in addition to the manifest identities, i.e., skills of members of formal organizations, they also possess latent identities such as loyalty, which significantly influences the nature of individual-organizational linkages.

Gouldner proposes the consideration of three variables in the analysis of latent identities in organizations: 1) loyalty to the employing organization (the "company man"), 2) commitment to specialized or professional skills (the "expert" or "functional bureaucrat"), and 3) reference group orientations ("union men" or "insiders" and "outsiders"). This led to the development of a conceptual model of individual-organizational linkages consisting of two latent organizational identities. These are:

1. Cosmopolitans: those low on loyalty to the employing organization, high on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an outer reference group orientation.

2. Locals: those high on loyalty to the employing organization, low on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an inner reference group orientation. (Gouldner, 1957, p. 290)

Gouldner views cosmopolitans and locals as latent identities because "they involve criteria that are not fully institutionalized as bases for classifying people in the modern organization, though they are in fact often used as such" (1957, p. 290). Manifest identities, on the other hand, are as suggested in Katz and Kahn's notion of organizational roles. Their approach is different from Gouldner's in that they deal with what a person does in an organization, as opposed to who he is.

Etzioni's compliance theory provides us with a conceptual model of individual-organizational linkages that is both integrative and applicable to all organizations. He states the "Compliance refers both to a relation in which an actor behaves in accordance with a directive supported by another actor's power, and to the orientation of the subordinated actor to the power applied" (1961, p. 3).

Put another way, compliance focuses on the instance in which an employee does what he or she is directed to do by the employer. Etzioni suggests that in a compliance situation such as this, two major variables are influential: 1) the kinds of power used by the employer, and 2) the nature of the employee's involvement.

Etzioni identifies three classes of power in accordance with the means employed. The first kind of power is coercive power, which is based on the application, or threatened application, of physical sanctions such as force or incarceration. The second kind of power is remunerative power, which rests on material resources and rewards such as pay, benefits, or commodities. Normative power is the third kind of power and it is based on the allocation and manipulation of symbolic rewards and deprivations. Examples of this kind of power include the allocation of prestige or esteem symbols and influence over the distribution of "acceptance" and "positive response."

Employee involvement, the other important variable found in compliance situations, rests on a continuum of negative to positive involvement. There are three

categories. The first kind of involvement is alienative involvement, which denotes an intense negative orientation similar to that found among prison inmates. Calculative involvement is the next type, and it represents either a negative or positive orientation of low intensity such as merchants with continuous business contacts. The third kind of involvement is moral involvement, which represents a positive orientation of high intensity. An example of this kind of involvement would be the involvement of a parishoner in his church.

Etzioni states that: "taken together, the two elements--that is, the power applied by the organization to lower participants, and the involvement in the organization developed by lower participants--constitute the compliance relationship" (1961, p. 12). In a compliance situation, what we have is an employee whose orientation lies somewhere along a positive-negative continuum. The positive end represents commitment, while the negative end of the continuum represents alienation. His specific orientation is determined by whether or not he views the power being applied as congruent with the line of action he desires. For example, an employee

subject to coercive power would more than likely respond with an alienative type of involvement--a negative orientation. On the other hand, the application of normative power usually results in normative involvement--a positive orientation.

Etzioni summarizes the dynamic in the following manner:

. . . there are two parties to a compliance relationship: an actor who exercises power, and an actor subject to this power, who responds to this subjection with either more or less alienation or more or less commitment. (1961, p. 4)

The relationship is not unidirectional or static; moreover, it is a relationship that is both fluid and interdependent.

Central Life Interest Theory

Not too unlike the direct implication of Etzioni's compliance concept, the other theories described thus far also assume, albeit directly or indirectly, that the nature of man's involvement in an organization reflects either alienation or commitment. It is generally held that an involved worker is a committed worker and that an uninvolved worker is alienated. Dubin (1977)

takes issue with such a position, particularly with the notion of alienation as it is typically described-- "a social psychological disengagement from an environment" (Dubin, 1975, p. 2).

In this regard, he states:

I am convinced that alienation does not constitute the basic orientation of the modern work force. What has come to be called alienation is more properly understood as a shift of central life interests away from work. There are many attachments that still bind people to their place of work, but these attachments are not invested with strong affect because self-investment occurs in institutional settings other than the work institution. Those looking for alienation in the work place expect to find self-investment in work, and failing to discover this affective link with work, label the condition 'alienation.' (1977, p. 8)

This statement is based on a theory of central life interests which he developed over 20 years ago (Dubin, 1956). In this theory, he presents a broader perspective for understanding individual-organizational linkages. He accomplishes this in two ways. First, Dubin accounts for the fact that man in today's society has linkages to many organizations in the course of the day. Secondly, he contends that there are varying features of an organization in which a person may have

an interest.

More specifically, Dubin's theoretical framework, and the framework used for this study, involves five basic points:

(a) the axiom that social experience is inevitably segmented; (b) the assumption that an individual's social participation may be necessary in one or more sectors of his social experience but may not be important to him; (c) the logical conclusion that adequate social behavior will occur in sectors of social experience which are mandatory for social participation but not important to him; (d) the second conclusion that in situations of necessary but unimportant social participation the most direct and obvious features of the situations become bases for the individual's attachment to that situation; (e) the third conclusion that primary social relations take place only in situations where the social experience is valued by the individual. (Dubin, 1956, p. 132)

That our social experiences are segmented is evidenced by an examination of what one does in one week or even one day. An individual may find himself participating in work activities, leisure activities, family activities, or religious activities. Not only is the character of these activities different, they are also differentiated as to time, physical location, organizational setting, and degree of private or public

involvement. The point is that during a relatively short period of time, we do a lot of different things at different times, in different settings, with different people, and in some instances by ourselves.

Dubin's second point is that an individual's social participation may be necessary, but not important to him. An example of this would be the individual who goes to church every Sunday even though he experiences no spiritual satisfaction. He may go because his wife expects it of him, or his job requires an image of a church-going man. His participation in this activity is necessary even though he does not really consider it important to him. It is a means to an end. Going to church is not important to him, but marital harmony and maintaining a certain image is.

The third point underlying Dubin's theory is that "adequate social behavior will occur in sectors of social experience which are mandatory for social participation by the individual but not important to him" (Dubin, 1956, p. 132). In this case, the churchgoer knows that merely going to church is not enough. He recognizes that there are certain social behaviors expected of him if he is to achieve his ends. He must

be cordial to those he meets on entering the church, be quiet during the services, and participate in the appropriate rituals. Again, going to church is not really important to him, but he does know that while in church it is important to demonstrate "adequate social behavior."

Examples of the two previous points are also found in the world of work. A person may go to work because it is necessary and not because the experience is valued. Since the job is necessary in an instrumental sense, he will manifest those behaviors required for continued employment. In other words, he may "do just enough to get by."

The fourth point that is basic to Dubin's central life interests theory is "in situations of necessary but unimportant social participation the most direct and obvious features of the situation become the bases for the individual's attachment to the situation" (Dubin, 1956, p. 132). These "direct and obvious features" include the formal organization and technology that surrounds work. Examples of organizational and technological features may include the building we work in, our specific work place, our tools, organizational

supervisors and their methods of evaluating our performance, and procedures used to requisition spare parts.

The fifth aspect of Dubin's theory is "that primary social relations take place only in situations where the social experience is valued by the individual" (Dubin, 1956, p. 132). He defines primary social relations as "the relationships that occur in groups where the interaction is face-to-face, continuous, intimate, and shared over a wide range of subjects" (Dubin, 1956, p. 133). These are informal group experiences "that are not directly a product of an official relationship in an organization or related positions in a division of labor" (Dubin, 1956, p. 135). Examples of informal social relations would be the horseplay and joking that goes on on the job, coffee break small talk, and other interactions with friends at work.

For purposes of this study, it is important to point out what Dubin's central life interests theory is not. There are several terms that may be confused with central life interests. These include job involvement, work-role involvement, job satisfaction, and others (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). The basic difference between

these terms and central life interests is that the latter refers to our "expressed preference for a given locale or situation in carrying out an activity" (Dubin, 1956, p. 134). Central life interests applies to both work and nonwork activities. Whereas job involvement, job satisfaction and other similar terms refer specifically to work situations, and not family, religious, leisure or other activities located away from the world of work.

Review of Central Life Interests Studies

The original central life interest study was conducted by Dubin in 1952-1953 and formally published in 1956 (Dubin, 1956). It involved 491 workers representing three industrial plants located in urban settings. The basic research question was to determine to what extent the job and its locale were the workers' central life interest.

Dubin (1956) developed the Central Life Interest (CLI) questionnaire to collect data necessary for the study. The CLI questionnaire was a 40-item instrument with each question having three possible responses, a

job oriented, non-job oriented, and a no preference response. The 40 items focused on "the formal aspects of membership and behavior in organizations, the technological aspects of the environment, the informal group life experiences, and general everyday experiences" (Dubin, 1956, p. 134). In describing the original CLI questionnaire Dubin also states that: "Each question represents an activity that has an equal likelihood of occurring in connection with some aspect of the job or workplace, or at some definite point in the community outside of work" (1956, p. 134). (NOTE: In 1963, the original CLI questionnaire was revised to reduce the number of items to 32.)

In one sense, Dubin's findings were pretty much in line with what the general sociologists would expect. However, some of the other findings were certainly startling. The finding which was not surprising was that only 24 per cent of the industrial workers in his sample indicated that their work was their central life interest. Dubin's explanation of this phenomenon is as follows:

He, the general sociologist, has already noted that the social world of urban man is continuously subdivided into areas of activity and interest, with each social segment lived out more or less independently of the rest. It seems highly plausible that the urban world, with its emphasis upon secondary and instrumental social relations, might indeed be one in which work has become secondary as a life interest. (Dubin, 1956, p. 131)

On the other hand, one of the surprising findings was that 90 per cent of the respondents indicated that they preferred to enact their primary social relations in places other than their job. The surprising aspect of this is that because of the human relations movement, "we are generally led to believe that informal human relationships at work are important to the individual industrial man" (Dubin, 1956, p. 131).

The other finding that was rather surprising, and in contradiction to the beliefs and values surrounding the human relations movement, was that over 60 per cent of the workers indicated job oriented preferences in the areas of formal organizational experiences and technological experiences. From a human relations point of view who would have guessed that workers would be more attracted to things and formal organizational structure

instead of the people they work with? However, in taking a closer look at this occurrence, we must also consider how frequently one encounters formal organizational and technological experiences in nonwork activities. If these experiences are found less frequently in nonwork activities than in work situations, would it not seem logical to expect a high proportion of responses to these subcategories to be work oriented?

These questions notwithstanding, Dubin concluded that:

. . . the industrial worker's world is one in which work and the work place are not central life interests for a vast majority. In particular, work is not a central life interest for industrial workers when we study the informal group experiences and the general social experiences that have some affective value for them. Industrial man seems to perceive his life history as having its center outside of work for his intimate human relationships and for his feelings of enjoyment, happiness, and worth. On the other hand for his experiences with the technological aspects of his life space and for his participation in formal organizations, he clearly recognizes the primacy of the work place. In short, he has a well developed sense of attachment to his work and work place without a corresponding sense of total commitment to it. (1956, p. 140)

Since Dubin's (1956) original study, 18 additional studies have been conducted in which some

information on central life interests have been reported. In several instances, because of the absence of published reports, some of the studies will only be commented on briefly. For example, in many of the studies there is little information reported on the four subcategories of experience: informal, formal organizational, technological, and general social experiences. There is also an absence of information concerning the no preference responses of those sampled. With regard to the latter, and following an inquiry by the author, Dubin stated that: "We were focusing in the early studies on measuring job orientation. The result was that all other categories were lumped together as residual categories" (Dubin, 1977b).

For purposes of discussion, these studies will be reviewed according to four general categories: 1) blue collar workers, 2) clerical workers, 3) professionals and specialists, and 4) middle managers and supervisors.

Following Dubin's original study, Corrie (1957) was the first to put Dubin's central life interests theory to a test among blue collar workers. He selected as his sample 592 Amana Refrigeration workers and

hypothesized that they would be significantly more job oriented than were the workers in the Dubin study. He based his hypothesis on the assumption that these workers were from a predominantly rural background, and that they would be associating with Amana Colony workers who have a tradition of craftsmanship. Put another way, the non-Amana Colony workers would be more job oriented through association with the Amana Colony workers.

The findings clearly support Corrie's hypothesis. Seventy per cent of the respondents were found to be job oriented. Compared with Dubin's 24 per cent, the difference is significant. However, an intra-sample analysis revealed no significant differences when the job orientation of non-Amana Colony workers were compared with Amana Colony workers.

Corrie contends that these findings suggest that Midwestern American workers are more job oriented than most sociologists give them credit. He also believes that such a high proportion of job oriented blue collar workers may be attributed to the strength of the work ethic among Amana Colony workers. It is a significant part of their religious values. One can

infer from Corrie's writing that differences in job orientation patterns between workers studied by Corrie and those studied by Dubin are in part a reflection of group norms peculiar to Amana Colony workers.

Since the Amana Colony study, four other studies of the central life interests of blue collar workers have been conducted. In all instances the results support Dubin's previously stated conclusions. Only 14 per cent of a sample of 406 lumber workers, 18 per cent of 432 telephone workers, 12 per cent of the 349 long-distance truck drivers surveyed, and 26 per cent of 2,298 British industrial workers indicated a job oriented central life interest (Dubin, Champoux & Porter, 1975).

Except for the telephone company workers, this is the extent of the published information that is available. Among the telephone company workers, however, it was also reported that 66 per cent of them indicated a no preference orientation, and 16 per cent with a non-job orientation.

Besides corroborating the conclusions originally stated by Dubin (1956), the studies mentioned heretofore also suggest that there may be social

organizational differences. This is reflected in the significant differences noted in a comparison of the results of the Amana Colony study and the other blue collar studies. These studies, excepting the Amana Colony study, also indicate that there may be no significant differences among British and American blue collar workers.

There are only three studies that have focused on the central life interest of clerical workers. However, from what information that is available, it appears as though clerical workers are not too unlike blue collar workers when it comes to their job orientation. In a listing of central life interest studies, Dubin, Hedley, and Taveggia (1976, p. 283) reported that 24 per cent of a sample of 124 Canadian retail sales clerks were job oriented. Parker (1965) in measuring the central life interests of bank employees found that only one in 10 had a job oriented central life interest. In another study (Dubin, Champoux & Porter, 1975), similar results were also reported. Of the 504 bank and telephone company clerical workers surveyed, only 12 per cent indicated that their work place was a central life interest.

In the above mentioned studies, the clerical workers were predominantly females and the blue collar workers were mostly males. In light of this, one might conclude that males and females holding jobs in the relatively lower level of occupations hold similar job orientations.

Since all of the studies of clerical workers were conducted as part of larger studies, little other information was published on the nature of their central life interest orientation.

The next occupational category that will be discussed is professionals. For purposes of this discussion, the term "professionals" is used rather loosely to include registered nurses, junior high school teachers, Michigan Cooperative Extension Service agents, and youth employment and child care officers in British welfare organizations.

Of the above, the only professional occupation on which there is a substantial amount of published information available is registered nurses. Orzack (1959) administered the CLI questionnaire to 150 registered nurses employed in public and private general hospitals and a state mental hospital in a Midwestern

city. Some minor changes were made in the wording of the instruments to replace terms inappropriate to the nurse's work setting.

With regard to registered nurses as professionals, Orzack hypothesized that they would be more favorably oriented to work as a central life interest than industrial workers. He based his hypothesis on the assumption that professionals do value their work, and that: "They may in fact consider it an end in itself. For the professional, work is a focal center of self-identification and is both important and valued" (Orzack, 1959, p. 126).

In another reference to professionals, Orzack states that:

At most, preferences for work rather than nonwork settings as the environment for social relationships and for general personal satisfactions may be considered to be probable, if not unintended, consequences of necessary segregation during training. Preferences of this sort are not the planned outcome of specific curricular features. (1959, p. 126)

This led him to further hypothesize that the pattern of responses for the four subcategories of experience which Dubin reported for industrial workers

would be duplicated with professionals. Specifically, professionals would prefer their work place as the setting for formal organizational and technological experiences. This would also apply to informal social relationships and general personal experiences, but to a lesser extent.

The results of Orzack's study confirmed his first hypothesis. Seventy-nine per cent of the registered nurses indicated that work and the work place was their preferred location for enacting a variety of activities. They viewed work as their central life interest. Worthy of note is the fact that of the various populations sampled to date, the nurses have one of the highest proportions of respondents who reported a job oriented central life interest.

In the main, the responses for the four sub-categories of experience confirm Orzack's second hypothesis. He explains his findings in the following manner:

Informal social relations as well as general sources of personal satisfactions are less likely to be work or job centered than are experiences involving participation in formal organization and technological behaviors. Professional nurses weight work settings more heavily than they

weight nonwork settings, with one exception: informal relations are somewhat more closely linked with nonwork and community locations than is the case for general personal satisfactions. Nurses are overwhelmingly likely to prefer work to nonwork or community settings for their technological behavior and for their participation in formal organizations. (Orzack, 1959, p. 127)

The specific job oriented proportions for the four subcategories were as follows: informal relations--45 per cent, general personal satisfaction--67 per cent, formal organizational experiences--91 per cent, and technological experiences--87 per cent.

Ranta (1960) found similar results among the 232 Michigan Cooperative Extensive Service county agents. Eighty-five per cent of the respondents had a job oriented gross central life interest score. The proportion with job oriented responses for the four subcategories were as follows: informal relations--52 per cent, general personal satisfactions--not reported, formal organizational experiences--94 per cent, and technological experiences--87 per cent.

The results of Ranta's study supports Orzack's prediction that professionsl would stress work and work place as the preferred location for enacting a variety

of behaviors, and hence be more of a central life interest than for industrial workers. The results of this study also reinforces Dubin's predicted pattern among three of the four subcategories of experi

The high percentages reported by Ranta are impressive. However, there is some reason to believe that they may have been unintentionally influenced by the methodology employed. First of all, the central life interest scores were ascertained as part of a larger study that focused on the professional perception the agents had of themselves, of the Michigan Cooperative Extension Service, and the professional orientation of agents. The fact that the study focused on matters of professionalism may have put the respondents in a job oriented frame of reference. Such a situation could have served as an unintended intervening variable, thus confounding the results.

The high percentages may have also been influenced by another procedural matter. Of the studies reviewed, this is the only one in which the researcher indicated that he personally administered the questionnaire. A possible result of this technique is that it could have caused the respondents to check the responses

that they considered to be "socially more desirable" (Anastasi, 1968, p. 456). In this case, because of the focus of the study, and because the respondent is in the presence of the researcher, the socially more desirable responses could have been perceived as being those that are job-oriented.

In the two other studies that fall into the professional occupations category, the results were not consistent with the Orzack and Ranta findings. Moreover, they are similar to the results Dubin got in his study of industrial workers.

Nelson (1962), in studying the occupational self-images of teachers, made use of the CLI questionnaire along with another instrument to collect his data. His sample included 230 Michigan junior high school industrial education teachers. He found that the majority of these teachers did not view their work as their central life interest. Only 24 per cent were job oriented. Of these, 12 per cent were job oriented with regard to informal relations, and over two-thirds with regard to formal organizational and technological experiences. There is no published information on the general personal satisfactions category.

The other study which produced results unlike those of Orzack and Ranta was conducted by Parker (1965) among a sample of child care officers and youth employment officers in British welfare organizations. Only one-third of this group of 241 was job oriented.

If one were to accept Orzack's reasoning that professionals are more likely to have work as their central life interest than nonprofessionals, one may have to conclude that the first group of professionals discussed in this review, the nurses, are more professional than the latter two groups of professionals discussed. There is probably some truth to this. However, there are some other factors which may have influenced the obtained results.

Nurses, extension service agents, teachers, and British welfare officers represent people who are working in organizations that are significantly different from one another. Each organization reflects differences in authority structure, extent of employee responsibility, rewards, proportion of males versus females, predominant age group employed, and many other factors too numerable to list. There are also cultural and geographic differences to consider. Until such factors

are controlled for in replicative studies, the prudent thing to do may be to withhold full acceptance of Orzack's ideas on professionalism and attendant central life interests of professionals.

The last category of occupations to be reviewed is middle managers and supervisors. Mauer (1968) was one of the first to test Dubin's central life interests theory among managers. He selected as his sample those who occupy the lowest level of the management hierarchy, supervisors. In this case the sample consisted of 111 industrial supervisors representing six randomly selected firms in Michigan. The main activity of these supervisors "was the direct or ultimate supervision of workers engaged in production and/or assembly operations" (Mauer, 1965, p. 332).

Over half (54 per cent) of the industrial supervisors surveyed were oriented to work and the work place as a central life interest. This is more than twice the percentage reported in Dubin's study of industrial workers. However, the four subcategories of experience for industrial supervisors follows the same pattern found among industrial workers.

Although the pattern of responses are in the same direction, the proportion of supervisors who were job oriented was higher than the proportion found among industrial workers, with one exception. Only 5 per cent of the supervisors preferred to locate their informal behaviors at work, compared with 9 per cent of the industrial workers. The specific percentage reported for the other three subcategories are as follows: formal organizational experiences--76 per cent, technological experiences--87 per cent, and general personal satisfactions--57 per cent. The latter is significantly higher than the 15 per cent reported for industrial workers.

In another study, Dubin and Goldman (1972) surveyed 404 middle managers from seven firms, six from the Midwest and one from the Northwest. Of the seven firms, six were involved in light or heavy manufacturing and one was a financial concern. The middle managers included in this study were those employees below the level of vice-president and above the level of clerk. The sample, therefore, may have included many employees who Mauer, in the previously cited study, chose to call supervisors.

Although the proportion (43 per cent) of middle managers who indicated a central life interest in work was higher than that for industrial workers (24 per cent), it was lower than the proportion (54 per cent) Mauer reported for supervisors. The majority of middle managers in this study have central life interests in activities away from their work. Dubin and Goldman view these results as confirming Dubin's central life interest theory. They state that:

Our data suggest that a majority of middle managers . . . can respond to this mandatory requirement of participation without making that institutional area central to their lives. Work may be viewed by them as a means to an end--a way of acquiring the income and social opportunities for focusing their life interest in other institutional settings. (Dubin & Goldman, 1972, p. 138)

This is all well and good, but they fail to take into account results of Mauer's research with industrial supervisors. Also the fact that they lumped together all person's between the level of clerk and vice-president and called them middle managers is somewhat suspect. One would logically guess that there would be significant differences between the responses of a foreman and a plant manager.

Not unlike many of the other central life interest studies, the general pattern of responses for the four subcategories of experience fall in the same direction. Dubin and Goldman found that the majority of middle managers indicated a preference for enacting behaviors related to informal relations and general person satisfactions in nonwork settings, and a work oriented preference for formal organizational and technological experiences.

The issue concerning the lumping of all employees in one group and calling all of them middle managers, was to some extent addressed by Starcevich (1973) in his study. In researching the central life interest of managers, he arranged his sample into two groups, first-line managers and middle managers. The sample consisted of 182 middle managers from the main office of a large manufacturing firm located in a small South-western town, and 155 first-line managers who were all from the manufacturing field operations.

The results of Starcevich's study indicated that there is a difference in the expressed central life interests of employees representing the two different levels of management. Forty-five per cent of the

first-line managers were job oriented and 53 per cent of the middle managers were job oriented. These results should not be too surprising. It is logical to assume that the higher one is on the managerial hierarchy, the greater the probability that his work will occupy an important place in his life space.

There is also evidence that the central life interests of middle managers will also vary according to organizational and cultural differences. Bowin (1970) administered the CLI questionnaire to a sample of 348 male middle managers from banking, manufacturing, and retailing firms in the Portland, Oregon area. He found that middle managers in manufacturing and banking were more nonwork oriented than middle managers involved in retailing. These differences may be due to differences in their work environments or organizational structures.

Endo (1970) studied Japanese middle managers. His sample consisted of 457 middle managers and included persons in the position of chief clerk, section chief, department head, and major company officials. Again, as in the case of the Dubin and Goldman study, we have

middle management being represented by significantly different positions in the managerial hierarchy.

In spite of this, it is interesting to note that 82 per cent of the respondents viewed their work and work place as a central life interest. This proportion of work-oriented responses is significantly higher than all other studies, except Ranta's study of extension service agents (85 per cent). Endo attributes this to cultural differences. He believes that in contrast to Western studies, his findings refute the assumption that work is not a central life interest for most people.

Reports on Japanese industrial organizations give evidence to support Endo's findings. The relationship between the firm and the worker is very paternalistic and there exists a strong individual-organizational linkage. Stated more specifically:

In Japan, loyalty to the group and an interchange of responsibilities--a system of shared obligation--take the place of a primary relationship between the worker and the firm. The firm will not discharge an employee even temporarily except in the most extreme circumstances. He will not quit the firm for a job elsewhere. This applies to all levels of the organization. (Lawrence & Seiler, 1965, p. 776)

The high proportion of job-oriented Japanese middle managers may also be attributed to the fact that compared to managers from other countries they see themselves as receiving a relatively high degree of fulfillment in their job environment (Haire et al., 1966, p. 111). This may, in part, be a result of the paternalistic nature of Japanese organizations.

However, it should be pointed out that these differences may also be a reflection of a built-in bias in the sampling procedure used. If the sample included a disproportionate number of major company officials, one would logically expect the study to reflect a high proportion of job-oriented responses.

The pattern of responses to the four subcategories of experience for the last three studies cited, are pretty much in the direction Dubin predicts in his central life interests theory. The one exception appeared in the Endo Study where in the general personal satisfactions subcategory the overwhelming majority were job oriented. Again, as in the case of the total central life interests score, this may be a reflection of cultural differences or composition of the sample.

Although in most of the middle manager studies the majority of the respondents reflected work orientations that follow the same course theorized by Dubin, the results are still inconclusive because of sampling problems, organizational and cultural differences. This criticism to varying degrees also applies to most of the other studies cited in this review.

There is certainly a need for additional research on Dubin's central life interests theory. In order to clarify his theory, sampling procedures need to be more stringently controlled. Instead of lumping large groups of respondents in one general category, there needs to be more measuring and comparing of the central life interests of purer groups of workers. For example, the results of research that involved the measuring of the central life interests of assembly line workers with assembly line foremen would be more meaningful than a study that fails to make these distinctions. In other words, the results of a study are more useful if positions in the organizational hierarchy are kept distinct and pure, and analyzed accordingly.

There is also a need to continue the study of workers in similar organizations but in different

organizational settings. For instance, it would be worthwhile to look at the central life interest scores of teachers in an urban and suburban setting, or electrical engineers of similar rank working for General Electric and RCA.

Conceptual clarification of Dubin's theory would also be enhanced by additional studies of the central life interests of workers in distinctly different occupations, organizations, and cultures. There is conclusive information to be obtained. However, if this is to be realized the research conducted must be cleaner and more tightly controlled.

In Chapter I it was mentioned that, to date, there have been no studies dealing with the central life interests of military personnel. Most of the previous studies have involved samples from business and industry. A study involving the military will provide additional evidence regarding the validity of Dubin's theory as it applies to different types of organizations. Because of the clear-cut rank structure in military organizations, a study of the military will also allow the researcher to conduct purer intra-sample and inter-sample comparisons with little difficulty.

Work Attachment Theory

In all of the studies that have been cited thus far, there is one common thread worthy of discussion and additional investigation. Regardless of the nature of the respondents' central life interests, to varying degrees they all indicated that there are features of their work to which they are attached. For the most part, these have been the technological and formal organizational aspects of their work and work place. Although Dubin's original study and others provide us with some insight concerning the features of work that respondents are attached to, i.e., the four subcategories of experience, there is definitely a need to identify more specifically what these features are.

Dubin, Hedley, and Tevaggia (1976) have theorized that employees do develop strong bonds of attachment to their work. The theory that they developed is eclectic, since there are many different approaches to understanding individual-organizational linkages and many different features of work to which one may become attached. The development of this theory is based on a search of

the empirical literature for those features of work to which workers become attached. As a result of the search, three broad categories were established. They are: 1) systems of the work environment, 2) work-place objects and human conditions, and 3) payoffs.

What follows is a brief discussion of these three categories as presented by Dubin et al. (1976, pp. 289, 290).

A system is described as having interdependent components and an identifiable boundary. The various systems of the work environment include: the self, work group, company, union, craft-profession, and industry. The self is included in this taxonomy because it is believed that individuals do relate to themselves as a system. "The person is an object to himself" (Dubin et al., 1976, p. 289) as demonstrated in such terms as self-respect and self-image.

Work place objects are, very simply, physical things such as the "technologies of work and the products of labor" (Dubin et al., 1976). The human condition of the work environment is defined "as the complex work regime features that have special impact on the higher human faculties" (Dubin et al., 1976, p. 289).

The higher faculties in this sense refers to a person's intellectual and emotional dimensions. The features of work included in this category are: technology, product, routine, autonomy, and personal space/things.

Payoffs are both physical and social features of one's work environment. They include such things as: money, perquisites, power, status, and career.

The feature of work to which one becomes attached is established by the individual who experiences them. Whether the work feature is experienced positively or negatively does not determine the importance of that feature (Dubin et al., 1976, p. 290). For example, if an Army officer considers it important to have his own jeep, whether or not he actually gets the jeep does not alter its importance as a feature of work.

Based on their theory of work attachment, Dubin et al. (1976) developed a 116-item questionnaire. It is simply a checklist of brief phrases that describe work and the work environment. Respondents merely check off those items they consider important to them. Emphasis is placed on what is considered to be important regardless of whether it is liked or disliked.

In several work attachment studies conducted by Dubin, Hedley, and Tevaggia (1976, pp. 311-323) among British and American industrial workers, significant differences were discovered. It was found that sources of attachment to work varied according to central life interests, age, length of service, sex, and cultural background. Based on the complexities of the patterns of attachment to work, the researchers concluded that indeed, it is more useful to adopt an eclectic rather than a monastic theory of attachment to work. In this regard, they state that:

We no longer believe that there is an economic man, or a psychological man, or a sociological man who does the work of the world and who is to be researched through his pocketbook, or his psyche, or his social relations, in order to motivate his work effort. We think the working man is a whole man--he is simultaneously an economic, psychological, sociological person. It is only when the whole man is taken seriously that we can perceive that there are multiple attachments to work. (Dubin et al., 1976, p. 324)

As is the case with central life interests theory, no research has been conducted among military personnel regarding their various sources of attachment to work. Since work attachment theory is an outgrowth

of central life interests theory, the same rationale for studying the central life interests of military personnel applies to the study of work attachment theory as it is manifested in the military organizations.

Summary

In this chapter we examined several conceptual models that address the nature of individual-organizational linkages from either a psychological or sociological perspective. We then conducted a detailed examination of Dubin's central life interests theory. Particular attention was devoted to Dubin's conceptual framework which operationalizes individual-organizational linkages. A review of the various central life interests studies revealed that a significant proportion of the respondents preferred nonwork activities as their central life interest. This was particularly so in those situations involving informal relations and general personal satisfactions. However, when it came to their experiences with the formal organizational and technological aspects of their environment, they were

significantly more work oriented.

It was also noted that regardless of one's central life interest, they do develop strong bonds of attachment to their work. Research in the area of work attachments is not as extensive as the central life interests research; however, it has been found that the nature of work attachment does vary according to several demographic variables.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

General

This study involved the collection of information on Army officers' central life interests and work attachments. Information collected on central life interests provides an indication of the officer's work orientation and how he views various work and nonwork experiences. Information collected on work attachment reflects those features of work to which the Army officers sampled are attached.

In addition to the above, specific demographic information has also been collected. This includes such information as

1. The officer's rank.
2. The number of months the officer has held that rank.
3. Age.
4. Sex.
5. Race.

6. Number of years of prior service as an enlisted man.
7. The year and source of the officer's commission.
8. Total time in service.
9. Branch of service, i.e., infantry, field artillery.
10. Service component, i.e., career or reserve officer.
11. Highest level of education.
12. Total months command time.
13. Whether or not the officer has commanded a battalion or has been selected to command a battalion at some future date.
14. Whether or not the officer is currently in a supervisory position. If so, the number of people he supervises.
15. The number of months the officer has been assigned to a combat zone.
16. Whether or not the officer lives on or off post.

Research Instruments

An officer's central life interests were assessed using the Central Life Interest (CLI) questionnaire developed by Dubin (1956) (see Appendix A).

The CLI questionnaire measures a person's central life interests by describing a behavior and asking for a setting in which it is preferred to enact the behavior. A respondent is presented with a specific behavior and three alternative settings for the occurrence of the behavior. One alternative specifies the work setting, another specifies a setting away from work, and the third indicates no preference as to the setting of the behavior. Thus each of the alternatives to an item is considered to be a job, non-job, or no preference response (i.e., no locale preferred). (Dubin & Champoux, 1975, p. 167)

As previously mentioned, the behaviors described in the CLI questionnaire are organized into four areas of experience. These include behaviors associated with informal social experiences, formal organizational experience, technological experiences found in one's environment, and behaviors related to one's general personal satisfactions (Dubin & Goldman, 1972, pp. 135, 136).

The CLI is a standardized (Selltitz, Wrightsman & Cook, 1976, p. 304), 32-item questionnaire that is based

on the "forced choice technique" (Anastasi, 1969, p. 458). The alternative responses for each of the items are randomly ordered throughout the questionnaire. It has a split-half reliability of "around .90" (Dubin & Champoux, 1975, p. 167).

Because of the uniqueness of the population to which the CLI questionnaire was administered, it was necessary to revise the language in several of the items. These language revisions were designed to 1) change business and industry terms to appropriate military terms, and 2) help to distinguish between one's work place and the Army post in general. The latter revision was necessary because many Army officers both live and work on post. This is generally unlike the civilian worker who usually does not live within the confines of the firm that employs him. Revisions were conducted in consultation with a group of Army officers and scholars, including Dr. Dubin.

Work attachments were measured with the Work Attachment questionnaire (see Appendix A), a standardized 116-item checklist developed by Dubin et al. (1976, p. 312). It is simply a list of phrases that describe work and the work environment. Respondents were asked to check

off those items they considered to be important regardless of whether it is something liked or disliked.

The language of some of the Work Attachment questionnaire items were revised in a manner similar to the CLI questionnaire. However, it was also necessary to delete several items that were not applicable to the military. A primary example of nonmilitary items are those that focus on the individual and his union. These revisions were made in consultation with the same group of experts mentioned above.

The Work Attachment questionnaire was determined to have a reliability of .77. This figure was calculated using the test-retest method (Anastasi, 1969, p. 78) among a group of 11 Army officers enrolled in Syracuse University's Army Comptroller Program. This group of officers are similar in many respects to those that made up the sample for this study.

Sample

Purposive sampling was used for this study. It is a nonprobability procedure in which the researcher selects a sample judged to be typical of the population

under consideration (Chein, 1976, p. 521). The sample consists primarily of a heterogeneous group of U. S. Army captains, majors, and lieutenant colonels assigned to the staff and faculty of the United States Military Academy, west Point, New York and the United States Army Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. For purposes of clarification, it should be pointed out that in this study, the sample is representative of the two institutions under study and not the U. S. Army in general.

These officers are primarily involved in teaching or administrative duties, and in many instances perform both functions. For the most part, they represent officers with a performance record considered to be above average. Assignment to either the Military Academy or the Staff College is based on a demonstrated record of excellent performance and potential.

It is also important to note that their assignment at these particular duty stations are only temporary, lasting approximately three years. All officers have had previous assignments with duties very different from those they are currently performing. These may have included command, management, or various types of staff duties. In addition, most have had combat experience. The point is that their prior work experience in

the Army is similar, in many respects, to that of Army officers in general.

The Military Academy and Staff College were selected for sampling because they provide a high concentration of readily available officers of differing ranks and branches of the Army.

The sample consisted of 450 officers, 225 from the Military Academy and 225 from the Staff College. The rate of questionnaire return from the 450 distributed was 63 per cent (284 questionnaires), with 61 per cent (137 questionnaires) return rate for the Military Academy, and 66 per cent (147 questionnaires) return rate for the Staff College. Of the 137 Military Academy questionnaires, 130 were fully usable, and 141 of the Staff College questionnaires were fully usable.

Data Collection Procedure

A packet of questionnaires was mailed to an experienced research representative at each of the institutions. They, in turn, delivered an appropriate number of questionnaires to the respective department executive officers for distribution. Distribution to

the individual officers was accomplished by placing a questionnaire in the prospective respondents' mail boxes. The completed questionnaires were returned by the executive officers to the respective research representatives, who then forwarded them by mail to the author of this study. The bulk of the questionnaires were returned within 30 days.

Each questionnaire had an attached cover letter that briefly explained the nature of the study, asked for the respondents' cooperation, and guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity of individual responses.

Data Analysis

Upon receipt of the completed questionnaires, they were inspected for suitability for analysis, i.e., completeness of answers. The data from the questionnaires were key punched for analysis by the author using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, 1975, pp. 181-202), version seven. A key punch validity check was conducted to determine if there were any key punching errors. This was accomplished by the author and a computer analysis expert.

Statistical analysis for the respective research questions is as described in the following paragraphs.

Question 1: What proportion of officers will be classified as having a central life interest that is either job-oriented, have no preference, or non-job-oriented?

Analysis: In accordance with the procedures developed by Dubin (1956), each item on the questionnaire was scored as job-oriented responses, non-job-oriented responses, or no preference responses. Next, the respective central life interest orientations were tabulated and recorded. Proportions were then calculated for the total sample according to job orientation.

Question 2: What proportion of officers will be classified as job-oriented, having no preference, or non-job-oriented with respect to the following subcategories: 1) informal group experiences, 2) formal organizational experiences, 3) technological experiences, and 4) general personal satisfaction.

Analysis: The procedure described above was repeated for this research question. The proportion of respondents falling into each of the central life interest subcategories were then recorded.

Question 3: What is the relationship between total central life interest orientation and the orientation of respondents in each of the central life interest subcategories?

Analysis: The responses in each subcategory were cross tabulated with the total central life interest orientation in order to examine the distribution of each subcategory in relation to central life interest orientation. Following this, patterns of responses within each subcategory were identified.

Question 4: Is there a significant relationship between the officer's central life interest orientation and specific demographic variables?

Analysis: Where appropriate, the frequency distribution of responses for some of the demographic variables was examined and ranges for categorizing these variables were established. Then a crossbreak (Kerlinger, 1973, pp. 160-162) was constructed for each of the demographic variables according to the measured central life interests. The statistical significance of the relationships between central life interest measures and each demographic variable was determined

using the chi-square test (Marascuilo, 1971, pp. 394-413).

Question 5: What is the relationship between central life interest orientation and job satisfaction?

Analysis: A question regarding job satisfaction was included at the end of the CLI questionnaire. To facilitate analysis, the six possible responses were collapsed, leaving just two classifications for analysis. Respondents who indicated that they are somewhat satisfied, satisfied, or quite satisfied were classified as being satisfied. Those who indicated that they are somewhat dissatisfied, dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied were classified as being dissatisfied.

The same procedure used in research question 4 was repeated for analysis of this question. The proportion of satisfied and dissatisfied respondents were then recorded according to central life interest orientation.

Question 6: What are the top 25 features of work identified as important on the Work Attachment questionnaire?

Analysis: The items on the Work Attachment questionnaire were rank-ordered according to the number

of the times checked, from most frequent to least frequent. The top quartile of the work attachment rank-ordering was then placed within the appropriate general work attachment category and subcategories of work attachment.

Work attachment items selected for analysis were limited to the top 25 for purposes of manageability. The one exception to this occurs in the analysis of the relationship between central life interest orientation and work attachment. In the latter instance all 100 work attachment items are used because it involves a replication of specific procedures used by Dubin et al. (1976). A full listing of the rank of the 100 work attachment items appears in Appendix B.

Question 7: Is there a significant relationship between the demographic variables and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items?

Analysis: For each demographic variable, the work attachment items were rank-ordered within the demographic categories. In instances where there were three or more blocking categories for a particular demographic variable, analysis of differences was

calculated in accordance with the Friedman Two-way Layout Test (Hollander & Wolfe, 1973, p. 138). Where only two blocking categories existed, the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test was used (Hays, 1973, pp. 780, 781).

Question 8: Is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items?

Analysis: A question regarding job satisfaction was included at the end of the CLI questionnaire. To facilitate analysis, the six possible responses were collapsed, leaving just two classifications of satisfaction for analysis. Respondents who indicated that they are somewhat satisfied, satisfied, or quite satisfied were classified as being satisfied. Those who indicated that they are somewhat dissatisfied, dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied were classified as being dissatisfied.

Following this, work attachment items were rank ordered according to the classification of job satisfaction. Analysis of differences was then calculated using the Friedman Two-way Layout Test.

Question 9: Is there a significant relationship between central life interest orientation and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items?

Analysis: The top 25 work attachment items were rank-ordered within the respective central life interest orientations. Analysis of the differences due to central life interest orientation was accomplished using the Friedman Two-way Layout Test.

Question 10: What are the ranking differences of work attachment items when comparing officers with different central life interest orientations.

Analysis: In this case, analysis was based on the rank order of each work attachment item for each of the following combinations of central life interest orientations: job/no preference, job/non-job, and no preference/non-job. The items reported reflected a difference of at least ten ranks between the two groups being compared (Dubin et al., 1976, p. 312).

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Introduction

In this chapter, findings from the analysis of data will be presented for each of the research questions of this study. These findings will be presented separately for the central life interest orientations and associated subcategories, sources of attachment to work, and specific demographic variables. Prior to the presentation of these findings, the sample will be described in terms of the demographic variables.

Description of the Sample

A description of the total sample in terms of personal characteristics appears in Table 1. The ages of the respondents ranged from 27 to 57, with an average age of 37. The sample is, for the most, male and white. The exceptions include only one female and 11 minorities. Because of such small numbers, sex and race variables will not be used for further analysis.

Table 1
A Summary of the Personal Characteristics
of U. S. Army Officers Sampled

Category	Percentage
<u>Age</u>	
< 31 years	13.0
31-35 years	31.0
36-40 years	28.0
> 40 years	<u>28.0</u>
	100.0
<u>Sex</u>	
Male	99.6
Female	<u>0.4</u>
	100.0
<u>Race</u>	
Caucasian	96.1
Black	2.8
Other	<u>1.1</u>
	100.0
<u>Education Level</u>	
Bachelor's degree	15.5
Advanced degree	<u>84.5</u>
	100.0
<u>Place of Domicile</u>	
On post	81.8
Civilian community	<u>18.2</u>
	100.0

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ARMY MILITARY PERSONNEL CENTER ALEXANDRIA VA
A STUDY OF CENTRAL LIFE INTERESTS AND SOURCES OF ATTACHMENT TO --ETC(U)
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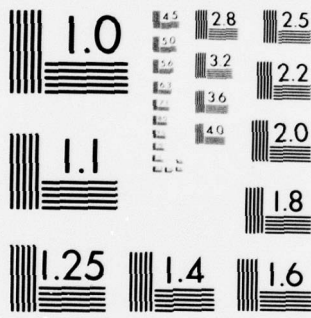
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MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

An overwhelming majority (85 per cent) of the respondents have at least a master's degree; only one in seven have just four years of college. However, it should be pointed out that in order to teach at the Military Academy a minimum of a master's degree is required. Over 80 per cent of the respondents live within the confines of the military post where they work, while the others live off-post within the civilian community.

A description of the military background of the sample appears in Table 2. The majority (89 per cent) of the respondents hold the officer rank of either captain, major, or lieutenant colonel. The remainder hold the rank of colonel. Within these ranks, there are those who have just been recently promoted and those who have held their present rank for over eight years or more. The average time in grade is approximately four and one-half years.

Almost half of the respondents received their commission through the Reserve Officer's Training Corps (ROTC), the primary source of officers for the Army. A little more than a third of the respondents were commissioned through the Military Academy, while the

Table 2
A Summary of the Military Background
of U. S. Army Officers Sampled

Category	Percentage
<u>Rank</u>	
Captain	30.0
Major	25.8
Lieutenant Colonel	33.2
Colonel	11.0
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Time in Grade</u>	
< 2 years	29.0
2-4 years	21.0
4-6 years	10.0
6-8 years	28.0
> 8 years	12.0
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Source of Commission</u>	
OCS	11.7
ROTC	48.5
USMA	39.8
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Year of Commission</u>	
Prior to 1959	24.0
1959-1962	24.0
1963-1967	24.0
After 1967	28.0
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Branch</u>	
Combat	59.9
Combat Support	26.0
Combat Service Support	14.1
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Service Component</u>	
Career Officer	96.4
Reserve Officer	3.6
	<u>100.0</u>

remainder received their commission as a result of going through Officers Candidate School (OCS). The year in which these officers were commissioned ranges from 1950 through 1972, with two-thirds being commissioned during the period 1959 to 1969.

Almost two-thirds of the officers are combat officers (infantry, armor, field artillery, and air defense artillery). The other third represent combat support and combat service support officers. Combat support officers are those assigned to the following branches: corps of engineers, signal corps, military police, and military intelligence. The combat service support branches include the following: chemical corps, quartermaster corps, ordinance corps, transportation corps, adjutant general's corps, finance corps, chaplains, and medical service corps. Finally, it should be noted that over 95 per cent of the respondents are career officers. Because of the small number of reserve officers, the service component variable will be dropped from further analysis.

A summary of the military experience of the sample appears in Table 3. Their total time in the Army ranges from five to 33 years. The average time

Table 3
A Summary of the Military Experience
of U. S. Army Officers Sampled

Category	Percentage
<u>Time in Service</u>	
5-9 years	25.0
10-14 years	23.0
15-19 years	28.0
> 20 years	24.0
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Prior Enlisted Service</u>	
Yes	20.4
No	79.6
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Supervisor</u>	
Yes	25.1
No	74.9
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Number Supervised</u>	
1-10	53.5
11-20	16.9
21-30	7.1
> 30	22.5
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Command Time</u>	
None	6.0
1 year	24.0
2 years	44.0
3 years	16.0
> 3 years	10.0
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Battalion Command</u>	
Yes	20.5
No	79.5
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Combat Experience</u>	
None	9.0
1-6 months	4.0
7-12 months	44.0
13-18 months	7.0
19-24 months	26.0
> 24 months	10.0
	<u>100.0</u>

in service is 15 years. One in five have had some prior service as enlisted men. One quarter of the officers, at the time the questionnaires were administered, occupied a supervisory position of some sort. The great majority of these supervisors supervised 12 or less people. However, this is not to imply that the majority of the sample is without managerial experience, because nine out of 10 have had prior experience as commanders. Of this group, 20 per cent have commanded or been selected to command a battalion or equivalent size unit. A battalion size unit may range anywhere from 500 to 1,000 men, or men and women. Finally, it should be noted that 90 per cent of the respondents have had combat experience, with an average of 17 months in a combat zone.

Research Question 1: What proportion of officers will be classified as having a central life interest that is either job-oriented, has no preference, or non-job-oriented?

A summary of the data reflecting the job orientation, no preference orientation, and non-job-orientation of the total sample is presented in Table 4. The majority of the officers sampled do not regard their

Table 4
Central Life Interest Orientation

Category	Percentage
Job-Oriented	16.5
No Preference	50.0
Non-Job-Oriented	33.5
	<u>100.0</u>

work as their central life interest. Only 16.5 per cent indicate that their work is a central life interest. Exactly one-half reflect a no preference orientation and the remaining third are non-job-oriented.

Research Question 2: What proportion of officers will be classified as job-oriented, having no preference, or non-job-oriented with respect to the following central life interest subcategories: informal group experiences, general personal satisfactions, formal organizational experiences, and technological experiences?

The reader will recall that informal relations refer to social relations such as the joking that goes on on the job, coffee break small talk, and other unofficial interactions with friends. General personal satisfactions include those day to day social experiences that are valued because they give pleasure and satisfaction to the individual. Formal organizational experiences are those that take place between officials of the organization and its members. Examples of the latter include hiring, directing, disciplining, and rewarding. Technological experiences are associated with such things as the manner in which a person does

his or her work, product/outcome, and experiences with his or her equipment.

A summary of the job, no preference, and non-job-orientations of the respondents with respect to the four subcategories is presented in Table 5. The vast majority of the respondents show a non-job or no preference orientation with regard to the preferred locale for enacting behaviors associated with their informal relations and general personal satisfactions. However, over half are job-oriented when it comes to the formal organizational and technological experiences of their environment. It is interesting to note that although almost half of the respondents indicate that they have no preference regarding their total central life interest orientation, the proportion of no preference responses appearing for the four subcategories is significantly less. This pattern of responses is, for the most part, similar to the findings of other central life interest studies, particularly among blue collar and clerical workers. Specifically, only a small proportion prefer their work environment for experiencing informal relations (14.7 per cent) and general personal satisfactions (10.7 per cent). However, over half prefer

Table 5
Central Life Interest Orientation
by Subcategory

Subcategory	Percentage
<u>Informal</u>	
Job-Oriented	14.7
No Preference	19.1
Non-Job-Oriented	<u>66.2</u>
	100.0
<u>General</u>	
Job-Oriented	10.7
No Preference	8.8
Non-Job-Oriented	<u>80.5</u>
	100.0
<u>Formal Organizational</u>	
Job-Oriented	57.4
No Preference	5.9
Non-Job-Oriented	<u>36.8</u>
	100.0
<u>Technological</u>	
Job-Oriented	52.2
No Preference	9.9
Non-Job-Oriented	<u>37.9</u>
	100.0

their work environment for their formal organizational and technological experiences. Although among middle managers and professionals, the proportions are relatively higher for each of the four subcategories.

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between total central life interest orientation and the orientation of the respondents in each of the central life interest subcategories?

A summary of the relationship between total central life interest orientation and the orientation of the respondents in each of the central life interest subcategories is presented in Table 6. In this table the reader will note that there exists an orientation pattern between total central life interest measures and subcategory central life interest measures. For example, in the informal relations subcategory:

1. Of those respondents who are job oriented with regard to informal relations, 45 per cent have an over-all central life interest that is job-oriented;
2. Of those respondents who have no preference orientation with regard to informal relations, only 25 per

Table 6

A Summary of the Relationship Between Central Life Interest
Orientation and the Orientation of Respondents
Within Each Subcategory

Subcategory	Total CLI Orientation		
	Percentage		
	JO	NP	NJO
<u>Informal</u>			
Job-Oriented	45.0	42.5	12.5
No Preference	25.0	55.8	19.2
Non-Job-Oriented	7.8	50.0	42.2
<u>General</u>			
Job-Oriented	65.5	31.0	3.4
No Preference	20.8	54.2	25.0
Non-Job-Oriented	9.6	52.1	38.4
<u>Formal Organizational</u>			
Job-Oriented	28.2	59.0	12.8
No Preference	0.0	81.3	18.8
Non-Job-Oriented	1.0	31.0	68.0
<u>Technological</u>			
Job-Oriented	27.5	58.5	14.1
No Preference	7.4	40.7	51.9
Non-Job-Oriented	3.9	40.8	55.3

JO = Job-Oriented

NP = No Preference

NJO = Non-Job-Oriented

cent have a no preference over-all central life interest;

3. Of those respondents who are non-job-oriented with regard to informal relations, only 7.8 per cent have an over-all central life interest that is non-job-oriented.

Further, in the remainder of the table it will be noted that:

1. Respondents whose total central life interest orientation is job-oriented, are also job-oriented in relation to the four subcategories of experience. They represent the largest proportion of respondents within each job-oriented cell.
2. Respondents whose total central life interest orientation reflects no preference, also have a no preference orientation regarding the four subcategories of experiencing. With one exception, they represent the largest proportion of respondents within each no preference cell. The one exception is in the no preference/ technological cell. In this particular instance, the largest proportion of respondents are job-oriented when it comes to their technological experiences.

3. Respondents who have a non-job-oriented total central life interest, are also non-job-oriented regarding the four subcategories of experience. They represent the largest proportion of respondents within each non-job-oriented cell.

Research Question 4: Is there a significant relationship between the officers' central life interest orientation and specific demographic variables?

A summary of the relationship between the officers' central life interest orientation and specific demographic variables is presented in Table 7. The data on demographic variables related to the personal characteristics of the sample is presented in Tables 7a, 7b, and 7c. Tables 7d through 7h present a summary of the data related to the officers' military background. Data concerning the officers' military experience is presented in Table 7i through 7n. Lastly, presented in Table 7o is comparable data on the central life interest orientation of officers assigned to the Military Academy and the Staff College.

Using the chi-square test of significance, it was found that branch of service, a variable associated

Table 7
Relationship Between Central Life Interest Orientation
and Demographic Variables

Demographic Variable	Percent- age of Sample (N=272)	CLI Orientation			χ^2
		Percentage			
		JO (N=45) (16.5%)	NP (N=136) (50.0%)	NJO (N=91) (33.5%)	
A. <u>Age</u>					
< 31 years	13.0	4.4	15.4	15.6	8.13
31-35 years	31.0	37.8	29.4	27.8	
36-40 years	28.0	33.3	30.1	22.2	
> 40 years	28.0	24.4	25.0	34.4	
B. <u>Level of Education</u>					
Bachelor's degree	15.5	9.5	45.2	45.3	3.59
Advanced degree	84.5	17.5	50.9	31.6	
C. <u>Place of Domicile</u>					
On-post	81.8	15.8	50.3	33.9	0.90
Off-post	18.2	21.3	48.9	29.8	
D. <u>Rank</u>					
Captain	30.0	12.2	54.9	32.9	3.39
Major	25.8	22.1	47.1	30.9	
Lieutenant Colonel	33.2	17.4	46.7	35.9	
Colonel	11.0	14.3	53.6	32.1	
E. <u>Time In Grade</u>					
< 2 years	29.0	24.4	43.6	32.0	9.19
2-4 years	21.0	16.0	53.6	30.4	
4-6 years	10.0	7.1	50.0	42.9	
6-8 years	28.0	11.8	50.0	38.2	
> 8 years	12.0	17.6	58.8	23.4	

Table 7--continued

Demographic Variable	Percent- age of Sample (N=272)	CLI Orientation			χ^2
		Percentage			
		JO (N=45) (16.5%)	NP (N=136) (50.0%)	NJO (N=91) (33.5%)	
<u>F. Source of Commission</u>					
OCS	11.7	15.6	68.8	14.4	7.43
ROTC	48.5	19.0	44.4	53.8	
USMA	39.8	14.4	36.6	31.7	
<u>G. Year of Commission</u>					
Prior to 1959	24.0	15.4	44.6	40.0	4.43
1959-1962	24.0	18.5	52.3	29.2	
1963-1967	24.0	21.5	47.7	30.8	
After 1967	28.0	11.7	54.5	33.8	
<u>H. Branch of Service</u>					
Combat	59.9	17.2	57.6	20.0	15.67*
Combat Support	26.0	14.3	45.7	25.7	
Combat Service Support	14.1	20.0	40.0	54.3	
<u>I. Time In Service</u>					
5-9 years	25.0	13.0	55.1	31.9	5.61
10-14 years	23.0	21.0	41.9	37.1	
15-19 years	28.0	14.5	57.9	27.6	
> 20 years	24.0	18.8	43.8	37.4	
<u>J. Prior Enlisted Service</u>					
Yes	20.5	16.1	57.1	26.8	1.67
No	79.5	16.7	48.1	35.2	
<u>K. Supervisor</u>					
Yes	25.1	14.9	55.2	29.9	1.04
No	74.9	17.2	48.0	34.8	

Table 7--continued

Demographic Variable	Percent- age of Sample (N=272)	CLI Orientation			χ^2
		Percentage			
		JO (N=45) (16.5%)	NP (N=136) (50.0%)	NJO (N=91) (33.5%)	
<u>L. Number Under Officer's Supervision</u>					
1-10	53.5	13.5	54.1	32.4	1.66
11-20	16.9	9.1	54.5	36.4	
21-30	7.1	20.0	40.0	40.0	
> 30	22.5	21.4	57.2	21.4	
<u>M. Command Time</u>					
None	6.0	18.8	37.5	43.7	10.54
1 year	24.0	16.9	44.6	38.5	
2 years	44.0	19.2	46.7	34.1	
3 years	16.0	13.6	68.2	18.2	
> 3 years	10.0	7.4	55.6	37.0	
<u>N. Battalion Command</u>					
Yes	20.5	11.4	50.9	37.7	1.32
No	79.5	18.0	49.8	32.2	
<u>O. Combat Experience</u>					
None	9.0	12.0	48.0	40.0	6.69
1-6 months	4.0	9.1	54.5	36.4	
7-12 months	44.0	18.0	44.3	37.7	
13-18 months	7.0	25.0	45.0	30.0	
19-24 months	26.0	14.3	58.6	27.1	
> 24 months	10.0	16.7	58.3	25.0	

Table 7--continued

Demographic Variable	Percent- age of Sample (N=272)	CLI Orientation			χ^2
		Percentage			
		JO (N=45) (16.5%)	NP (N=136) (50.0%)	NJO (N=91) (33.5%)	
<hr/>					
P. <u>Military Post</u>					
Military Academy	48.5	40.0	50.7	49.5	1.61
Staff College	51.5	60.0	49.3	50.5	

*p < .05

JO = Job-Oriented

NP = No Preference

NJO = Non-Job-Oriented

with military background, is the only demographic variable that is significantly ($p < .05$) related to the respondents' central life interest orientation. All others are not significantly related. In spite of this, there are some interesting observations to make about all of the variables.

Among the variables related to personal characteristics, it is interesting to note in Table 7a that the proportion of job-oriented officers under age 31 (4.4 per cent) is much smaller than that of any other age group. Examination of Table 7b shows that the proportion of job-oriented officers with an advanced degree (17.5 per cent) is almost twice as great as those with only a bachelor's degree. Also worthy of note is that those who live off-post are more job-oriented than those who live on-post.

As previously mentioned, of those demographic variables associated with an officer's military background, only branch of service is significantly related ($p < .05$) to central life orientation. The nature of the relationship between the officers' central life interest orientation and their branch of service is presented in Table 7h. The highest proportion (20 per

cent) of respondents with a job-oriented central life interest is found among those officers in the combat service support branches. What is probably even more noteworthy is the fact that they also represent the group with the highest proportion (54.3 per cent) of non-job-oriented respondents. On the other hand, combat officers represent the group with the highest proportion (57.6 per cent) of respondents with an indifferent central life interest orientation.

In examining the other tables listing data associated with military background, we can observe the following:

1. Captains account for the smallest proportion of job-oriented officers (12.2 per cent) (see Table 7d). This finding is consistent with the proportion of job-oriented officers listed in Table 7a who are under age 31 (4.4 per cent), since most officers under age 31 are captains.
2. The proportion of job-oriented officers with less than two years time in grade (24.4 per cent) is greater than any other group. Whereas, at least half of the officers with more than two years time in grade tend to have no

preference regarding their central life interest orientation (see Table 7e).

3. The proportion of job-oriented officers is higher among ROTC officers (19.0 per cent) than among OCS (15.6 per cent) and USMA officers (14.4 per cent). Further, the proportion of OCS officers who have no preference with regard to their central life interest orientation (68.8 per cent) is much higher than the other two groups. Officers commissioned through OCS also have the smallest proportion (14.4 per cent) of non-job-oriented officers (see Table 7f).
4. Concerning year of commission (see Table 7e), those commissioned after 1967 have proportionately fewer job-oriented officers than those commissioned prior to 1967. This is to be expected, since those commissioned after 1967 represent the youngest and lowest ranking (captain) group of officers (see Tables 7a and 7b); they too represented groups with a relatively low proportion of job-oriented officers.

Table 7i through 7n list data associated with the military experience of the sample. In examining these tables, the reader will note the following:

1. The proportion of job-oriented officers with five to nine years time in service (13.0 per cent) is smaller than those with 10 or more years of service (see Table 7i). Again, this may be a reflection of the obvious correlation between age, rank, and year of commission.
2. In table 7j one can see that the highest proportion of officers with a no preference central life interest (57.1 per cent) is found among officers with prior enlisted service. They also represent the group with the smallest proportion of non-job-oriented officers (26.8 per cent).
3. In Table 7k one can see that a greater proportion of supervisors (55.2 per cent) have no preference with regard to their central life interest than non-supervisors. Further there seems to be little difference relative to their job or non-job-orientations.

4. Data in Table 7l indicates that over half of the supervisors with more than 30 people under their supervision have a no preference central life interest, while less than one out of 10 of the supervisors with 11 to 20 people under their supervision are job-oriented. Those supervisors with 21 to 30 people under their supervision represent the group with the highest proportion (40.0 per cent) of non-job-oriented respondents.
5. In Table 7m one can see that those with over three years command time have the smallest proportion of job-oriented respondents, but those with no more than three years of command represent the largest proportion of respondents with a no preference central life interest. On the other hand, those with no command experience have the highest proportion of non-job-oriented respondents (43.7 per cent), and the smallest proportion of respondents possessing a no preference central life interest (37.5 per cent).
6. Battalion commanders, not too unlike supervisors, tend to be less

job-oriented than those who have not commanded a battalion (11.4 per cent versus 18.0 per cent). However, the proportion of battalion commanders and non-battalion commanders who have a no preference central life interest is about equal (see Table 7n).

7. In Table 7o it is apparent that those with little or no combat experience tend to be a little less job-oriented than those with six months or more of combat experience. On the other hand, the proportion of non-job-oriented respondents tends to decrease relative to an increase in the number of months of combat experience. Those with more than 18 months of combat experience represent the group with the highest percentage of respondents with no preference in their central life interest orientation.

In general, it is evident that officers with the most military experience are less job-oriented than other officers, and tend to be more inclined toward having a no preference central life interest. However, the reader is reminded that, except in the case of branch of service, all of the above mentioned variables are not

significantly related to central life interest orientation.

In Table 7p one can see that there is little difference in central life interest orientation between those assigned to the Military Academy and those assigned to the Staff College, except for their job orientation. The Staff College has proportionately more officers who are job-oriented than does the Military Academy.

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between central life interest orientation and job satisfaction?

A summary of the relationship between central life interest orientation and job satisfaction is presented in Table 8. An analysis of the data, using the chi-square test of significance, indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship ($p < .05$) between the two variables.

An examination of the table shows that the vast majority (87.5 per cent) of the officers indicate that they are satisfied with their job. In spite of this positive response, only 16 per cent indicate that they have a job-oriented central life interest. The largest

Table 8
Relationship Between Central Life Interest
Orientation and Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Percent- age of Total Sample	CLI Orientation		
		Percentage		
		JO	NP	NJO
Satisfied	87.5	16.0	53.8	30.2
Dissatisfied	12.5	20.6	23.5	55.9

$$\chi^2 = 11.67$$

$$p < .05$$

JO = Job-Oriented

NP = No Preference

NJO = Non-Job-Oriented

proportion of the satisfied group (53.8 per cent) have a no preference central life interest orientation, while almost one-third are non-job-oriented. Of the 12.5 per cent who are dissatisfied, 20.6 per cent are job-oriented and 23.5 per cent have a no preference central life interest orientation. Finally, as one might expect, the highest proportion (55.9 per cent) of dissatisfied officers are non-job-oriented.

Since 87.5 per cent of the respondents indicate that they are satisfied, their over-all central life interest orientation is similar to that of the total sample. However, as has been pointed out, it is with the dissatisfied group that major shifts in central life interest orientation occur.

Research Question 6: What are the top 25 features of work identified as important on the Work Attachment questionnaire?

In the tables to follow, the work attachment items will be listed under their respective work attachment subcategories. They are presented below for purposes of review:

1. The "systems of the work environment" general category include the following

subcategories: "self," "work group," "organization," "craft-industry," and "industry."

2. The "work place objects and human conditions" general category include: "technology," "product," "routine," "autonomy," "and personal space/things."
3. The general category of "payoffs" include the following subcategories: "money," "perquisites," "power," "authority," "status," and "career."

A summary of the data representing the top 25 work attachment items most frequently checked by the respondents is presented in Table 9.

The results show that the most frequently represented general category is "work place objects and human conditions." Of the top 25 items, 11 are associated with this category. Regarding the related subcategories, four work attachment items are associated with "autonomy," three items are associated with "personal space/things," two items are associated with "technology," and two items are associated with "product."

Table 9
Ranking of Top 25 Work Attachment Items

Work Attachment Item	Rank	Analytical Subcategory	General Category*
Challenging or interesting work	1	Autonomy	2
Take home pay	2	Money	3
Army benefits	3	Perquisites	3
How we work together	4	Work Group	1
Responsibility in my job	5	Power	3
How well my equipment and methods work	6	Technology	2
Supervisor's confidence in me	7	Self	1
Efficiency of my unit	8	Organization	1
Respect I get from the people I work with	9	Work Group	1
Convenience to work area	10	Personal Space/ Things	2
Respect from family and friends because of my job	11.5	Status	3
Reputation of my unit	11.5	Organization	1
Importance of my profession to the country	13	Product	2
My unit's treatment of its personnel	14	Organization	1
Seeing the big picture of which I'm a part	15	Industry	1
Variety in my work	16	Autonomy	2
Creating methods to do my job better	17	Craft-Profession	1

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Table 9--continued

Work Attachment Item	Rank	Analytical Subcategory	General Category*
Contributing something to society	18	Self	1
Chance to use what I have learned	19	Autonomy	2
Learning new things	20	Autonomy	2
Pay raises	21	Money	3
How well the facilities are kept	22	Personal Space/ Things	2
Cleanliness of the work area	23	Personal Space/ Things	2
How good our services are	24	Product	2
Quality of equipment and methods	25	Technology	2

*1 = systems of the work environment

2 = work place objects and human conditions

3 = payoffs

The second most frequently represented general category is "systems of the work environment." Of the top 25 work attachment items, nine are associated with this category. Among the related subcategories, three work attachment items are associated with "organization," two items are associated with "self," two are associated with "work group," one is associated with "industry," and one is associated with "craft-profession."

The third most frequently represented general category is "payoffs." Of the top 25 items, five fall into this category. With regard to the related subcategories, two of the work attachment items are associated with "money," and one each is related to "perquisites," "power," and "status." It will be noted, however, that three of the items associated with "payoffs" are among the top five work attachment items most frequently checked by the respondents.

It is also interesting to note that there are no items appearing in the top 25 that are associated with the following subcategories: "routine," "authority," and "career." This is inconsistent with the commonly

held stereotype of Army officers as career minded and regimented bureaucrats.

Research Question 7: Is there a significant relationship between the demographic variables and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items?

Table 10a presents the results of the Friedman Two-way Layout Test used to determine the significance of the relationship between the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items and demographic variables with three or more blocking categories. Analysis of the data indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items and the following demographic variables: age ($p < .05$), time in grade ($p < .01$), year of commission ($p < .01$), command time ($p < .01$), and combat experience ($p < .01$).

Table 10b presents the results of the Wilcoxon test used to determine the significance of the relationship between the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items and demographic variables with two blocking categories. Analysis of the data indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items and the

Table 10a
Friedman Two-Way Layout Test Results for the Top 25
Work Attachment Items and Demographic Variables

Demographic Variables	χ^2 Approximation of Friedman
Age	9.10*
Rank	5.40
Time in Grade	23.30**
Source of Commission	2.66
Year of Commission	28.52**
Branch of Service	0.78
Time in Service	7.03
Number Under Supervision	0.324
Command Time	29.47**
Combat Experience	15.73**

*p < .05

**p < .01

Table 10b
Wilcoxon T Test Results for the Top 25
Work Attachment Items and
Demographic Variables

Demographic Variable	Z Approximation of Wilcoxon T
Level of Education	- 2.68**
Place of Domicile	- 0.06
Prior Enlisted Service	- 0.36
Supervisor	- 1.98*
Battalion Command	- 2.16*
Military Post	- 0.12

*p < .05

**p < .01

following demographic variables: level of education ($p < .01$), place of domicile ($p < .01$), whether or not the respondent is a supervisor ($p < .05$), and whether or not the respondent has commanded a battalion ($p < .05$).

As indicated in either Table 10a or 10b, the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items and the following demographic variables is not statistically significant: rank, source of commission, branch of service, time in service, the number of people under a respondent's supervision, prior enlisted service, and the military post to which the respondent is assigned.

In the tables to follow, comparisons of ranking differences for some of the top 25 work attachment items will be presented. Selection of specific items for comparison was accomplished in accordance with the procedures established by Dubin et al. (1976). Comparisons that are made are based on the rank order of each item for a particular group of respondents. The comparisons in each table are, therefore, a result of comparing rank orders. Attention is focused only on those items where there is a difference of at least five ranks between

the groups being compared. In each instance, this is indicated under the heading "Rank Differences" or "ranking by Other Groups." (Note: Since this portion of the study involves just the top 25 work attachment items, rank differences of five or more is employed instead of the rank differences of 10 or more which Dubin used.

For example, in Table 11, the reader will note that officers who are 31 to 35 years of age ranked an item from the "organization" subcategory seventh. The ranking of this item by the other age groups is more than five ranks lower than the 31 to 35 age group. Specifically, those under age 31 ranked the item seventeenth, the 36 to 40 age group ranked it twentieth, and the over 40 age group ranked the item sixteenth.

In most cases, those items appearing near the top of the top 25 list of work attachment items will not appear on any of the tables. However, the absence of these top items from any of the tables does not mean they are unimportant. It only means that among the items being compared, there is a minimum rank difference of five.

Table 11
Differences in the Ranking of Work Attachment Items
According to Age

Work Attachment Item(s) Ranked Higher by Designated Group	Rank	Ranking by Other Groups		
<hr/>				
<u>< 31 Years</u>		<u>31-35</u>	<u>36-40</u>	<u>> 40</u>
None				
<u>31-35 years</u>		<u>< 31</u>	<u>36-40</u>	<u>> 40</u>
<u>Organization</u>				
Its treatment of unit personnel	7	17	20	16
<u>Autonomy</u>				
Learning new things	14.5	22.5	20	22
<u>36-40 years</u>		<u>< 31</u>	<u>31-35</u>	<u>> 40</u>
None				
<u>> 40 years</u>		<u>< 31</u>	<u>31-35</u>	<u>36-40</u>
<u>Industry</u>				
Seeing the big picture of which I'm a part	9	20	17	14.5
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>				
How well the facilities are kept	14	24.5	19	23.5

Within each table, the work attachment subcategories are listed in the order of the number of items found in each. In those instances where there is an equal number of items in two or more subcategories, the subcategories are listed according to the relative rank of the items contained in each. Within each subcategory, the specific items are listed by their rank in the first column. In those cases where there is only one item per subcategory, the subcategory is listed according to the rank of the specific work attachment item. In essence, each table reflects the relative importance of subcategories and work attachment items contained therein.

The difference in the rank ordering of work attachment items according to age is presented in Table 11. Examination of this table shows that there are no differences of five ranks or more between the under 31 age and the other age groups. This is also the case with the 36 to 40 age group. However, the 31 to 35 age group consider "organization" and "autonomy" items as being more important than do the other age groups. The over 40 age group, on the other hand, assign a greater degree of importance to "industry" and

"personal space/things" work attachment items than do the other age groups.

Summarized in Tables 12a and 12b are the differences in work attachment rankings according to level of education. In Table 12a, one can see that the major differences in the manner in which they rank the items is found among those sources of attachment to work that are related to the broad category of "systems of the work environment." Those with advanced degrees are more concerned with the latter than those with only four years of college. Specifically, the advanced degree group assigns greater importance to features of their work that are related to their "work group," "organization," and "self." They are also more concerned with "status."

On the other hand, examination of Table 12b indicates that the bachelor's degree group shows a greater concern for "personal space/things." It appears that those with advanced degrees assign greater importance to people related items, while those with bachelor's degrees regard features of work associated with things as more important.

Table 12a
 Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers with
 Advanced Degrees Than Those with Bachelor's Degrees

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Advanced Degree Group	Rank Among Bachelor's Degree Group	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Work Group</u>			
Respect I get from my work group	8	15	7
<u>Status</u>			
Respect from my family and friends because of my job	11	17	6
<u>Organization</u>			
Its treatment of unit personnel	14	20.5	6.5
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Variety in my work	16	23.5	7.5
<u>Self</u>			
Contributing something to society	17	25	8

Table 12b

Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers with a
Bachelor's Degree Than Those with Advanced Degrees

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Bachelor's Degree Group	Rank Among Advanced Degree Group	Rank Differ- ence
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
Cleanliness of the work area	6.5	25	18.5
How well the facilities are kept	11	23.5	12.5
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Chance to use what I have learned	14	20	6

Presented in Table 13 is a summary of the differences in ranking of work attachment items according to time in grade. Ranking differences of five or more occur only among those with four to six years time in grade and those with over eight years time in grade. The difference between the four to six year group and the other groups is the importance they attach to what they are contributing to society. Although it is a "self" related feature of work, it represents both a positive and outgoing concern.

The over eight years group, on the other hand, are more concerned with features of work dealing with "work place objects and human conditions" than the other groups. The specific items they rank higher than the other groups are variety in their work ("autonomy") and the quality of their equipment and methods ("technology"). These items represent more of a concern with personal comfort at work than output.

Table 14 presents a summary of the differences in the ranking of work attachment items according to the officers' year of commissioning in the Army. As is the case with age differences, those who were commissioned prior to 1959 rank higher those items that probably

Table 13

Differences in the Ranking of Work Attachment Items
According to Years' Time in Grade

Work Attachment Item(s) Ranked Higher by Designated Group	Rank	Ranking by Other Groups			
<u>< 2 years</u>		<u>2-4</u>	<u>4-6</u>	<u>6-8</u>	<u>> 8</u>
None					
<u>2-4 years</u>		<u>< 2</u>	<u>4-6</u>	<u>6-8</u>	<u>> 8</u>
None					
<u>4-6 years</u>		<u>< 2</u>	<u>2-4</u>	<u>6-8</u>	<u>> 8</u>
<u>Self</u>					
Contributing something to society	7.5	22	18.5	21.5	19
<u>6-8 years</u>		<u>< 2</u>	<u>2-4</u>	<u>4-6</u>	<u>> 8</u>
None					
<u>> 8 years</u>		<u>< 2</u>	<u>2-4</u>	<u>4-6</u>	<u>6-8</u>
<u>Autonomy</u>					
Variety in my work	10	15	23.5	18	15
<u>Technology</u>					
Quality of equipment and method	14.5	20	25	21.5	24

Table 14

Differences in the Ranking of Work Attachment Items
According to Year of Commission

Work Attachment Item (Item Ranked Higher)	Rank	Ranking by Other Groups		
<u>Prior to 1959 Group</u>		<u>1959- 1962</u>	<u>1963- 1967</u>	<u>After 1967</u>
<u>Industry</u>				
Seeing the big picture of which I'm a part	8	17	15.5	22
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>				
How well the facilities are kept	16.5	22	22.5	24.5
<u>1959-1962 Group</u>		<u>Prior to 1959</u>	<u>1963- 1967</u>	<u>After 1967</u>
<u>Money</u>				
Raises	7.5	25	20.5	18
<u>Technology</u>				
Quality of equipment and methods	17	23	24	22
<u>1963-1967 Group</u>		<u>Prior to 1959</u>	<u>1959- 1962</u>	<u>After 1967</u>
<u>Organization</u>				
Its treatment of unit per- sonnel	9.5	16.5	17	18
<u>After 1967 Group</u>		<u>Prior to 1959</u>	<u>1959- 1962</u>	<u>After 1967</u>
<u>Work Group</u>				
Respect I get from them	4.5	14.5	9.5	9.5

reflect the extent of the responsibility they have in their work environment. Again, the work attachment items referred to are those associated with the "industry" and "personal space/things" subcategories. Those officers commissioned during the period 1959-1962 rank "money" and "technology" items higher than the three groups. While those who were commissioned after 1963 appear to have a greater concern for people-related items than do the prior to 1959 group and the 1959-1962 group.

Differences in the ranking of work attachment items according to the amount of command time an officer has had is presented in Table 15. On examining this table, we find that there are no differences of five ranks or more between those who have had no command experience and the other four groups, between those with a year or less command time and the other groups, and between the 13-24 months group and the other groups. However, we do find that the 25 to 36 months group ranks "money" higher than the other groups. In addition, those with more than 36 months command time rank "personal space/things" higher than the other four groups.

Table 15
Differences in the Ranking of Work Attachment Items
According to Years Total Command Time

Work Attachment Item(s) Ranked Higher by Designated Group	Rank	Ranking by Other Groups			
		<u>1 yr.</u>	<u>2 yr.</u>	<u>3 yr.</u>	<u>> 3</u>
<u>No Command Time</u>					
None					
<u>1 year</u>		<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>> 3</u>
None					
<u>2 years</u>		<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>> 3</u>
None					
<u>3 years</u>		<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
<u>Money</u>					
Raises	12	18	22.5	23.5	22.5
<u>> 3 years</u>					
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>					
Cleanliness of the work area	10	24	21	18.5	25

Table 16a presents a summary of those work attachment items that are ranked higher by officers who have commanded a battalion size unit, or have been selected for battalion command. Persons falling into this category are generally considered as being "on the way up." As one might expect, relative to non-battalion commanders, battalion commanders rank "seeing the big picture" higher. Officers over age 40 and commissioned prior to 1959 also ranked seeing the big picture ("industry") and work attachment items associated with "personal space/things" higher than do younger officers and those commissioned after 1959. It should also be pointed out that those who have commanded a battalion are more apt to be over age 40 and commissioned prior to 1959. This may account for the differences in the ranking of these particular work attachment items.

Battalion commanders also rank higher items associated with the "craft-profession" and "personal space/things" subcategories. The terms "professionalism" and "responsibility" do well to summarize the kind of items they ranked higher than nonbattalion commanders.

Table 16a

Work Attachment Items That Are Ranked Higher by Battalion
Commanders Than Those Who Have Not Been
Battalion Commanders

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Battalion Commanders	Rank Among Non-Battalion Commanders	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Industry</u>			
Seeing the big picture of which I'm a part	7.5	16.5	9
<u>Craft-Profession</u>			
Creating new methods to do my job better	13	19.5	6.5
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
Cleanliness of the work area	15.5	24	8.5

In Table 16b, we find that nonbattalion commanders rank higher those work attachment items that come under the subcategories of "autonomy," "work group," and "self." The importance they attach to "autonomy" and "work group" may be indicative of a smaller organizational frame of reference. However, they also seem to value what they contribute to society, which is indicative of a frame of reference much larger than their organization, regardless of its size.

Presented in Table 17a is a summary of work attachment items ranked higher by supervisors than those who are not supervisors. Supervisors are similar to battalion commanders in that they rank "personal space/things" items higher than the group of nonsupervisors. On the other hand, supervisors differ from battalion commanders with regard to the level of the "system of their work environment" they rank higher. Supervisors rank "organization" higher than nonsupervisors; whereas, battalion commanders rank "industry" ("seeing the big picture") higher.

Work attachment items ranked higher by non-supervisors than by supervisors are presented in Table 17b. Nonsupervisors are quite similar to

Table 16b

Work Attachment Items That Are Ranked Higher by Those Who
Have Not Been Battalion Commanders Than by
Battalion Commanders

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Non-Battalion Commanders	Rank Among Battalion Commanders	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Variety in my work	13	25	12
Learning new things	18	23	5
<u>Work Group</u>			
Respect I get from my work group	9	15.5	6
<u>Self</u>			
Contributing something to society	16.5	23	6.5

Table 17a

Work Attachment Items That Are Ranked Higher
by Officers Who Are Supervisors Than
Those Who Are Not Supervisors

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Super- visors	Rank Among Non-Super- visors	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Organization</u>			
Reputation of the unit	7.5	14	6.5
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
How well the facilities are kept	17.5	22.5	5

Table 17b
 Work Attachment Items That Are Ranked Higher
 by Officers Who Are Not Supervisors
 Than Those Who Are Supervisors

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Non-Super- visors	Rank Among Super- visors	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Work Group</u>			
Respect I get from my work group	8	15	7
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Variety in my work	13	24.5	11.5
Learning new things	17	24.5	7.5

nonbattalion commanders in the items they ranked higher than supervisors. Both groups ranked higher the same "autonomy" and "work group" items. There are apparently real differences in the ranking of items depending on whether or not the respondent is in a position of responsibility.

Presented in Table 18 is a summary of the differences in ranking of work attachment items according to the number of months an officer has had in combat. Ranking differences of five or more occur among those who have no combat experience, one to six months, 13 to 18 months, and 19 to 24 months of combat experience. Groups with seven to 12 months and more than 24 months in combat rank none of the top 25 work attachment items higher than any other group.

Those with no combat experience rank items associated with "organizations" and "product" higher than the other five groups. Officers with one to six months of combat experience rank contributing something to society, a "self" item, higher than the other groups. Officers with 13 to 18 months in combat rank "personal space/things" items higher than the groups, and those with 19 to 24 months in combat rank "product" higher.

Table 18

Differences in the Ranking of Work Attachment Items According to Months of Combat Experience

Work Attachment Item(s) Ranked Higher by Designated Group	Rank	Ranking by Other Groups				
		Months				
<u>No Combat Experience</u>		<u>1-6</u>	<u>7-12</u>	<u>13-18</u>	<u>19-24</u>	<u>> 24</u>
<u>Organization</u>						
Efficiency of my unit	3	19.5	25.0	15.5	8.5	11.5
<u>Product</u>						
How good our services are	13.5	25.0	19.5	23.0	20.0	22.0
<u>1-6 Months</u>		<u>0</u>	<u>7-12</u>	<u>13-18</u>	<u>19-24</u>	<u>> 24</u>
<u>Self</u>						
Contributing something to society	9	17.0	16.5	15.5	23.5	22.0
<u>7-12 Months</u>		<u>0</u>	<u>1-6</u>	<u>13-18</u>	<u>19-24</u>	<u>> 24</u>
None						
<u>13-18 Months</u>		<u>0</u>	<u>1-6</u>	<u>7-12</u>	<u>19-24</u>	<u>> 24</u>
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>						
How well the facilities are kept	9.5	24.0	23.0	23.5	18.5	18.0
Cleanliness of the work area	9.5	21.5	19.5	22.0	21.5	22.0
<u>19-24 Months</u>		<u>0</u>	<u>1-6</u>	<u>7-12</u>	<u>13-18</u>	<u>> 24</u>
<u>Product</u>						
Their importance to our country	6.5	17.0	14.5	12.0	19.0	18.0
<u>> 24 Months</u>		<u>0</u>	<u>1-6</u>	<u>7-12</u>	<u>13-18</u>	<u>19-24</u>
None						

Based on these findings, it appears as though those with no combat experience, one to six months, and 19 to 24 months of combat experience are concerned with the value of what they give, i.e., how good their services are, contributing something to something, and the importance of what they do for their country. However, officers with 13 to 18 months in combat tend to rank higher those items that are less altruistic, i.e., "personal space/things."

Research Question 8: Is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items?

Analysis of data using the Wilcoxon test indicates that there is a statistically significant ($p < .01$) relationship between job satisfaction and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items. Work attachment items ranked higher by officers that are satisfied with their job than those who are dissatisfied are presented in Table 19a. The ranking differences of those who are dissatisfied are presented in Table 19b. On the surface it may appear that the two groups have more in common than not. Both groups rank higher work attachment items from the following subcategories:

Table 19a

Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers
That Are Satisfied With Their Job
Than Those Who Are Dissatisfied

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Satisfied Group	Rank Among Dissatisfied Group	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Organization</u>			
Efficiency of my unit	8	16.5	8.5
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
Convenience to work area	9	16.5	7.5
<u>Status</u>			
Respect I get from my family and friends because of my job	11	20	9
<u>Industry</u>			
Seeing the big picture of which I am part	14	23	9
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Learning new things	17.5	23	5.5

Table 19b
 Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers
 That Are Dissatisfied With Their Jobs
 Than Those Who Are Satisfied

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Dissatisfied Group	Rank Among Satisfied Group	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Organization</u>			
Its treatment of unit personnel	5.5	15	9.5
<u>Craft-Profession</u>			
Creating methods to do my job better	8	20	12
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Chance to use what I have learned	12.5	19	6.5
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
How well the facilities are kept	12.5	23	10.5
<u>Product</u>			
How good our services are	16.5	24	7.5
<u>Technology</u>			
Quality of equipment and methods	20	25	5

Z approximation of Wilcoxon T = -3.80

p < .01.

"organization," "personal space/things," and "autonomy." However, closer examination of the tables shows that the items within the subcategories differ substantially. Within the "organization" subcategory, the satisfied group ranked "efficiency of my unit" higher than those who are dissatisfied, and the dissatisfied officers ranked "its [the organization's] treatment of unit personnel" higher than the satisfied officers. It appears as though those who are satisfied with their job are more task oriented, while those who are dissatisfied are more people oriented.

Within the "personal space/things" subcategory, those who are satisfied rank "convenience to work area" higher than the dissatisfied group, and the dissatisfied group rank "how well the facilities are kept" higher than the satisfied group. Within the subcategory of "autonomy," the satisfied officers rank "learning new things" higher than the dissatisfied officers, and the dissatisfied officers rank "chance to use what I have learned" higher than the satisfied officers. This may be a reflection of some of the frustration the dissatisfied group may be experiencing in their work environment.

Other differences between the two groups are that those who are satisfied rank "status" and "industry" items higher than those who are not satisfied. Those who are dissatisfied rank "craft-profession," "product," and "technology" higher than the satisfied group.

Research Question 9: Are there significant differences in the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items when comparing officers with different central life interest orientations?

Calculations based on the Friedman Two-way Layout Test indicate that the over-all differences in the rank ordering of work attachment items due to central life interest orientation are not statistically significant. However, this does not preclude ranking differences for specific work attachment items due to differences in central life interest orientation. Research question 10 addresses instances where there are differences among all 100 work attachment items.

Research Question 10: What are the ranking differences of work attachment items when comparing officers with different central life interest orientations?

The results of the differences in work attachment rankings are presented in Tables 20 through 25. The procedures used in constructing these tables are the same as those used in constructing the tables used in the presentation of differences among the demographic variables. There is, however, one exception. In comparing central life interest orientations, all 100 work attachment items are used. Because of this, attention is focused on only those items where there is a rank difference of 10 ranks instead of a rank difference of five ranks. This procedure is a replication of Dubin's et al. (1976) method of rank ordering work attachment items.

The data on the work attachments of job-oriented officers in comparison with officers having a no preference central life interest orientation are presented in Table 20. The most distinctive difference between the two groups is the importance assigned to the "power" subcategory by the job-oriented officers. Job-oriented officers also rank higher work attachment items associated with "product" and "routine." Other subcategories ranked higher, but of relatively less importance include: "organization," "craft-profession," "autonomy," "work

Table 20

Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers with a Job Oriented
Central Life Interest Than Those With
A No Preference Orientation

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Job-Oriented Officers	Rank Among No Preference Officers	Rank Differ- ence
<u>Power</u>			
Helping others to do their job	15.5	35	19.5
Whether my fellow workers depend on the work I do	33	54	21
Teaching new personnel	51.5	61.5	10
Whether my supervisor does his job	56.5	70	13.5
<u>Product</u>			
How useful they are	22.5	42	19.5
Seeing the results of our work	28	48.5	20.5
<u>Routine</u>			
How my supervisors give orders	53.5	65	11.5
Interruptions in my work	69	79	10
<u>Organization</u>			
Knowing what goes on here	15.5	41	25.5
<u>Craft-Profession</u>			
Being left alone to do my work	37	53	16
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Controlling the number of things I do	47.5	59	11.5
<u>Work Group</u>			
Talking to others when working	51.5	73.5	22
<u>Career</u>			
Having a job that is a way of life	60.5	75	14.5

Table 21

Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers With A
Job-Oriented Central Life Interest Than Those
With a Non-Job-Orientation

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Job-Oriented Officers	Rank Among Non-Job Oriented Officers	Rank Differ- ence
<u>Power</u>			
How I get along with my supervisors	28	43.5	15.5
The influence I have with my work mates	41	61.5	20.5
Whether my work mates depend on the work I do	33	61.5	28.5
Whether my supervisor does his job	56.5	71	14.5
<u>Work Group</u>			
Getting along with the people I work with	18	35.5	17.5
How I stand with people I work with	37	50	13
Talking to others when working	51.5	66.5	15
<u>Organization</u>			
Reputation of my unit	6	29.5	23.5
Knowing what goes on in my unit	15.5	40	24.5
<u>Career</u>			
My chances for advancement and promotion	41	58	17
Having a job that is a way of life	60.5	78	17.5
<u>Routine</u>			
How my supervisors give orders	53.5	65	11.5
Interruptions in my work	69	84	15
<u>Status</u>			
Respect from my family and friends because of my job	3.5	22	18.5

Table 21--continued

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Job-Oriented Officers	Rank Among Non-Job Oriented Officers	Rank Differ- ence
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
How well the facilities are kept	18	29.5	11.5
<u>Product</u>			
The services we provide	41	51.5	10.5
<u>Authority</u>			
How my mistakes are handled	44.5	56	11.5
<u>Money</u>			
Pay compared to civilian workers	56.5	66.5	10
<u>Self</u>			
How far I have to travel to get to work	60.5	71	10.5
<u>Perquisites</u>			
Job security	64	80.5	16.5

Table 22

Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers With
A No Preference Central Life Interest Than Those
With a Job Oriented Central Life Interest

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among No Preference Officers	Rank Among Job-Oriented Officers	Rank Differ- ence
<u>Self</u>			
Contributing something to society	17	28	11
Hours I work	56	69	13
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
Cleanliness of the work area	18.5	33	14.5
Opportunity for a personal touch to my work area	48.5	69	20.5
<u>Product</u>			
How good our services are	21.5	41	19.5
How valuable they are	39.5	74	34.5
<u>Perquisites</u>			
Holidays and leave time	32.5	44.5	12
Whether my unit allows time for sports and personal business	52	78.5	26.5
<u>Money</u>			
Raises	21.5	33	11.5
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Variety in my work	15.5	37	11.5
<u>Technology</u>			
Knowing exactly how my equipment works	30.5	47.5	17
<u>Organization</u>			
The nature of my unit's mission	27.5	60.5	33
<u>Craft-Profession</u>			
Inventing new ways to do my job	50.5	64	13.5

Table 23

Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers With
a No Preference Central Life Interest Than Those
With a Non-Job-Oriented

Work Attachment Items	Rank Among No Preference Officers	Rank Among Non-Job- Oriented Officers	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Product</u>			
Their importance to our country	11	22	11
How good our services are	21.5	32.5	11
<u>Organization</u>			
Reputation of the unit	11	29.5	18.5
The nature of my unit's mission	27.5	48.5	21
<u>Authority</u>			
How my mistakes are handled	43	56	13
<u>Career</u>			
My chances for advancement and promotion	35	58	23
<u>Power</u>			
The influence I have with my work mates	45	61	16
<u>Technology</u>			
Importance of equipment and methods in the field or garrison operations	63.5	73.5	10

Table 24

Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers With a
Central Life Interest in Non-Job Areas
Than Those with a Job Orientation

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Non-Job Oriented Officers	Rank Among Job-Oriented Officers	Rank Differ- ence
<u>Self</u>			
Time for personal needs	19.5	47.5	26
Hours I work	54	69	15
Physical work I do	82.5	96	14.5
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Controlling the speed at which I work	58	74	16
Variety in my work	14.5	37	13
Chance to use what I have learned	11	22.5	11.5
<u>Craft-Profession</u>			
Inventing new ways to do my job	40	69	24
Creating methods to do my job better	9	22.5	13.5
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
Opportunity for a personal touch to my work area	30.5	69.5	39
How safe my work area is	51.5	64	12.5
<u>Work Group</u>			
Getting together with them off the job	68	85	17
<u>Organization</u>			
The nature of my unit's mission	48.5	60.5	12
<u>Technology</u>			
Knowing exactly how my equipment works	37	47.5	10.5
<u>Product</u>			
How valuable they are	40	74	34

Table 24--continued

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Non-Job Oriented Officers	Rank Among Job-Oriented Officers	Rank Differ- ence
<u>Money</u>			
Army benefits	12.5	33	20
<u>Perquisites</u>			
Whether they allow time for sports and personal business	46	78.5	22.5

Table 25

Work Attachment Items Ranked Higher by Officers With a
Central Life Interest in Non-Job Areas Than Those
With a No Preference Orientation

Work Attachment Item	Rank Among Non-Job- Oriented Officers	Rank Among No Preference Officers	Rank Differ- ences
<u>Autonomy</u>			
Chance to use what I have learned	11	24	13
Controlling the number of things I do	43.5	59	15.5
Controlling the speed at which I work	58	72	14
<u>Product</u>			
How useful they are	17.5	42	24.5
Seeing the results of our work	34	48.5	14.5
<u>Power</u>			
Helping others to do their job	22	35	13
<u>Self</u>			
Time for personal needs	19.5	39.5	20
<u>Personal Space/Things</u>			
Opportunity for a personal touch to my work area	30.5	48.5	18
<u>Craft-Profession</u>			
Inventing new ways to do my job	40	50.5	10.5

group," and "career." Either directly or indirectly, many of the items reflect a concern for control over the officer's work or others that he works with or for. This, however, is not to imply that their control and power orientations are negative. All that is evident is that these items are ranked higher by job-oriented officers than those with a no preference central life interest orientation.

Work attachment items ranked higher by officers with a job-oriented central life interest than those who are non-job-oriented are presented in Table 21. Examination of the data shows that once again the major differences between the job-oriented group and the comparison group centers on "power" items. The subcategories that are ranked higher include: "work group," "organization," "career," "routine," "status," "personal space/things," "product," "authority," "money," "self," and "perquisites." Except for the "power" items, there is very little concern with controlling others or their work. However, it is interesting to note that half of the subcategories deal with "payoffs," the most important of which appears to be "power."

Work attachment items ranked higher by officers with a no preference orientation than those with a job-oriented central life interest are as shown in Table 22. There appears to be no single distinction that characterizes the officers with no preference when compared with job-oriented officers. Items considered relatively more important and ranked higher by the officers with no preference are those associated with "self," "personal space/things," "product," and "perquisites" subcategories. Items that are also ranked higher include those found in the following subcategories: "money," "autonomy," "technology," "organization," and "craft-profession."

Ranking differences between the no preference group and the non-job-oriented group are presented in Table 23. The officers with no preference give higher rankings to items related to "product," "organization," "authority," "career," "power," and "technology." The "product" and "organization" subcategories are considered to be relatively more important than the other four subcategories. The items identified are generally positive and other directed. However, it is important to note that three of the six subcategories

("authority," "career," and "power") are "payoffs" that are self-serving.

Table 24 presents a summary of work attachment items ranked higher by officers with a non-job-oriented central life interest than those who are job-oriented. Except for the "self" related items, there is no general distinction to help explain the ranking differences listed. The "self" items are narcissistic in their focus with little concern for output.

The other subcategories ranked higher by non-job-oriented officers than job-oriented officers include: "autonomy," "craft-profession," "personal space/things," "work group," "organization," "technology," "product," "money," and "perquisites." Although some of the items are obviously non-job-oriented, a significant number are essentially positive and job-oriented sources of attachment to work. This finding is consistent with Dubin's (1956) notion that regardless of one's central life interest, they may still be positively attracted to features of their work environment.

Work attachment items ranked higher by non-job-oriented officers than officers with no preference are presented in Table 25. In this case, those items that

are viewed as relatively more important than some of the others fall into the "autonomy" and "product" subcategories. The other subcategories that include items ranked higher by non-job-oriented officers than officers with no preference are "self," "personal space/things," and "craft-profession." What is distinctive about this list of subcategories is that all but one, "self," fall into the broad analytical category of "work place objects and human conditions," with a few being positive and output oriented.

Summary of Findings

The principal finding of this study centers on the configuration of central life interests among a sample of Army officers. Specifically, the results of the study indicate that:

1. Only a small proportion (16.5 per cent) of the officers studied prefer to locate their central life interest in their work environment.
2. Exactly one-half of the officers have no preference with regard to their central life interest orientation.

3. One-third of the officers have a non-job-oriented central life interest.

These findings are very different from the findings that have come out of the studies of the central life interests of middle managers and professionals. The latter two groups were much more job-oriented.

Regarding the four central life interest subcategories of experience, the pattern of responses in the present study more closely resembles that of industrial and clerical workers than any other occupational group previously studied. Specifically, less than 15 per cent prefer their work environment for experiencing informal relations, and approximately 10 per cent prefer their work environment for experiencing general personal satisfaction. However, over half of the officers prefer their work environment for their formal organizational and technological experiences.

The study also shows that if an officer in this sample has an over-all central life interest that is job-oriented, he will also have a tendency to be job-oriented in relation to the four subcategories of experience. For the most part, this also applies to

those who have a no preference central life interest or is non-job-oriented.

Analysis of the relationship between central life interests and demographic variables proved to be statistically significant in only one case, branch of service. We found the following distinctive differences among the three branch groups:

1. More combat officers have a no preference central life interest (57.6 per cent) than do combat support, and combat service support officers.
2. Fewer combat support officers (14.3 per cent) are job-oriented than the other two branch groups.
3. There are more non-job-oriented officers (54.3 per cent) among the combat service support group than any other group.

It was also found that, in spite of the relatively low proportion of officers with a job-oriented central life interest (16.5 per cent), the overwhelming majority (87.5 per cent) are satisfied with their work. Further, the majority of those who are satisfied have a no preference central life interest, and the majority of those who are dissatisfied are primarily non-job-oriented.

Regarding the various sources of work attachment, the majority of the features of work ranked in the top quartile are associated with the general categories entitled "systems of the work environment" and "work place objects and human conditions." However, three of the five items most frequently checked are related to the general category entitled "payoffs."

The following demographic variables are significantly related to differences in the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items: age, level of education, time in grade, year of commission, total amount of command time, whether or not a person has commanded or been selected to command a battalion, whether or not the officer is a supervisor, and the extent of the officer's combat experience. Those demographic variables that are not significantly related are: place of domicile, rank, source of commission, branch of service, time in service, prior enlisted service, and military post.

In reviewing the findings dealing with the significant relationships between demographic variables and work attachment ranking differences of five or more, two distinct patterns are apparent:

1. Those respondents who are over 40, were commissioned prior to 1959, and have commanded or have been selected to command a battalion rank "industry" higher than do the other demographic groups.
2. Those who have advanced degrees, were commissioned after 1967, have not commanded or been selected for command, and are not supervisors rank "work group" items higher than do other demographic groups.
3. It appears that younger officers are more concerned about "work group" items than are older officers.

Presented in Table 26 is a summary of demographic variables significantly related to the top 25 work attachment items, with rank differences of five or more, by general categories and subcategories. Examination of this table reveals the following:

1. The general work attachment category which most frequently accounts for differences within, and in some cases between, demographic variables is "work place objects and human conditions (18 times), followed by "systems of the work environment" (17 times), and "payoffs" (three times).

Table 26
Demographic Variables Significantly Related to the Top 25 Work Attachment Items
With Rank Differences of Five or More by General
Categories and Subcategories

Subcategories/ Frequency	Demographic Variables							Frequency by General Categories
	Age	Level of Education	Time in Grade	Year of Commission	Total Com- mand Time	Battalion Commander	Supervisor	Combat Experience
Self	/4	1	1			1		1
Work Group	/4	1		1		1	1	
Organization	/5	1		1			1	1
Craft-Profession	/1					1		
Industry	/3	1		1		1		
Subtotal	2	3	1	3	0	4	2	2
Technology	/2		1	1				
Product	/2							2
Routine	/0							
Autonomy	/6	2	1			1	1	
Personal Space/Thgs	/8	1		1	1	1	1	2
Subtotal	2	3	2	2	1	2	2	4
Money	/2			1	1			
Perquisites	/0							
Power	/0							
Authority	/0							
Status	/1	1						
Career	/0							
Subtotal	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
Total	4	7	3	6	2	6	4	6
								38

Payoffs

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2. Within the "work place objects and human conditions" general category, the subcategories entitled "personal space/thing" and "autonomy" most frequently account for ranking differences (eight and six times, respectively).
3. Within the "systems of the work environment" general category, the "organization" subcategory most frequently accounts for ranking differences (five times).
4. Within the "payoffs" general category, the subcategory entitled "money" most frequently accounts for ranking differences (two times).
5. It appears that of all the subcategories, "autonomy" and "personal space/things" are the two subcategories which most frequently point to differences within the various demographic variables.
6. Over-all, the subcategories which do not figure in the ranking differences of work attachment items include: "routine," "perquisites," "power," "authority," and "career." Worthy of note is the fact that four of the five subcategories are located in the

general category entitled "pay-offs." Ranking differences attributed to the subcategories of "craft-profession" and "status" occur only once.

7. The demographic variable that has the most work attachment items reflecting ranking differences is level of education (seven times). The demographic variable with the smallest number of work attachment items reflecting ranking differences is command time (two times).

Results of the study indicate that there is also a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items (see Table 19). There are ranking differences of five or more in 11 of the top 25 work attachment items. What is worthy of note is that within the "organization" subcategory, those who are satisfied appear to be more task oriented and those who are dissatisfied appear to be more people oriented. Further, within the "autonomy" subcategory, those who are satisfied are more concerned with learning new things, while those who are dissatisfied are more concerned with a chance to use what they have learned.

Finally, the findings of the present study indicate that the relationship between central life interest orientations and the ranking differences of the top 25 attachments is not statistically significant. However, it is interesting to observe the different frequencies with which the various general work attachment categories and subcategories occur when comparing different central life interest orientations. This information is presented in Table 27. An examination of this table shows that:

1. The general category which most frequently reflects differences between central life interest orientations is "work place objects and human condition" (31 times), followed by "systems of the work environment" (25 times), and "pay-offs" (24 times).
2. Within the "work place objects and human conditions" category, the "product" subcategory most frequently reflects ranking differences (10 times).
3. Within the "systems of the work environment" category, the "organization" subcategory most frequently

Table 27
 Combinations of Central Life Interest Orientation
 in Relation to Work Attachment Items With Rank
 Differences of Ten or More by General
 Categories and Subcategories

Subcategories/ Frequency		Combination of Central Life Interest Orientations			Frequency by General Categories
		JO/ NP	JO/ NJO	NJO/ NP	
Self	/7	2	4	1	System of the Work Environ- ment
Work Group	/5	1	4	0	
Organization	/7	2	3	2	
Craft-Profession	/6	2	3	1	
Industry	/0	0	0	0	
Subtotal		7	14	4	25
Technology	/3	1	1	1	Work Place Objects & Human Con- ditions
Product	/10	4	2	4	
Routine	/4	2	2	0	
Autonomy	/8	2	3	3	
Personal Space/Things	/6	2	3	1	
Subtotal		11	11	9	31
Money	/3	1	2	0	Payoffs
Perquisites	/4	2	2	0	
Power	/10	4	4	2	
Authority	/2	0	1	1	
Status	/1	0	1	0	
Career	/4	1	2	1	
Subtotal		8	12	4	24
Total		26	37	17	80

JO = Job Oriented
 NP = No Preference
 NJO = Non-Job-Oriented

highlights ranking differences
(seven times).

4. Within the "payoffs" category, the subcategory entitled "power" most frequently highlights ranking differences (10 times).
5. Over-all, the work attachment subcategories entitled "product" and "power" are the two subcategories which most frequently reflects differences in central life interest orientation.
6. Over-all, the subcategory that does not show any ranking differences is "industry." However, it should be pointed out that there is only one work attachment item in the questionnaire that is associated with industry.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, INTERPRETATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

As has been pointed out, work no longer seems to be the most central social institution among workers in America. This has been influenced by such factors as a diminution of the work ethic, industrialization, the emergence of a more affluent society, the prevalence of multi-equal institutions, and an increasing concern over humanistic notions such as self-actualization.

Because work is losing ground as the focal institution in our society, it brings into question what are the central life interests of today's workers. The concept of central life interest has been defined as "the focal arena of individual preference for behaving, given a choice of behavioral settings" (Dubin & Goldman, 1972, p. 133). The shift in the centrality of work also raises the question as to what are the sources of one's attachment to work, given a work or non-work central life interest orientation?

This study is an extension of Dubin's (1956) original research on the central life interest among industrial workers. Specifically, the author has investigated and reported on the configuration of central life interests of U. S. Army officers and identified their various sources of attachment to work. The Army is a unique organization in that its mission, its totalness as an institution, its emphasis on primary group relations, and the commitment it requires of its members is quite unlike that found among organizations previously studied.

Several conceptual models have been developed to explain the phenomenon of individual-organizational linkages. Among others, many of these models are based on either a psychological or sociological perspective. Some of the psychological approaches include reciprocity theory, motivation theory, organizational role theory, and a socio-psychological approach called goal integration. Some of the sociological perspectives include bureaucratic theory of organizations, a theory of organizational identity (cosmopolitans versus locals), and compliance theory.

Dubin's (1956) central life interest theory is a departure from the approaches mentioned above, and presents a broader perspective for understanding individual-organizational linkages. The theory attempts to account for the fact that man in today's industrial society has linkages to many organizations, and assumes that there are varying features of an organization in which a person may have an interest. In other words, one's central life interest may or may not be the actual work itself. In addition, regardless of the centrality of an organization in one's life, he/she will be differentially attached to certain features of that organization.

With a few exceptions, central life interest studies conducted to date have resulted in the following general findings (Dubin et al., 1976):

1. The majority of industrial and clerical workers studied have non-job-oriented central life interests.
2. A little less than half of the middle managers studied are job-oriented.
3. The majority of the professional studies have a job-oriented central life interest.

4. In most cases, respondents preferred a non-work setting for locating their experiences dealing with informal relations and general personal satisfactions. However, more often than not, they preferred to enact behaviors associated with formal organizational and technological experiences in their work environment.

Research dealing with the linkages a person develops with features of his/her work environment has been limited. However, findings that are available indicate that there is a relationship with the sources of work attachment regarded as important and demographic variables such as age, sex, time in service, and one's cultural background.

The present study has sought to identify the central life interests of a sample of Army officers assigned to the United States Military Academy and the U. S. Army Command and General Staff College. The study also focused on providing a description of the central life interests of the respondents according to the four subcategories of behavior that are associated with participation in a particular institutional setting.

Specifically these behaviors include: informal relations, general personal satisfactions, formal organizational experiences, and technological experiences.

The CLI questionnaire developed by Dubin (1956) was used to collect data on the above mentioned areas of investigation. It is a questionnaire designed to measure a person's central life interest by describing a behavior and asking the respondent to indicate the setting (job, no preference, or non-job) in which he/she would prefer to enact such behavior. The behaviors described in the questionnaire are representative of the four subcategories of experience.

This study has also sought to identify the various features of their work environment that officers regard as important. This was accomplished using the Work Attachment questionnaire (Dubin et al., 1976), a 100-item checklist.

In addition to describing the officer's central life interest and identifying their sources of attachment to work, an analysis of the relationship between these items and various demographic variables was also conducted. Further, this study involved an analysis of the relationship between one's central life interest

orientation and the ranking of work attachment items. An assessment of the officer's job satisfaction in relation to central life interest was also conducted.

Conclusions

1. Over-all Central Life Interest Orientation

Half of the officers participating in the study have no preference regarding their central life interest orientation, one-third are non-job-oriented, while only one in six have a job-oriented central life interest.

2. Central Life Interest by Subcategories of Experience

A great majority of the officers studied are non-job-oriented in terms of their preferred locale for experiencing informal relations and general personal satisfactions. On the other hand, over half select their workplace for their formal organizational and technological experiences.

3. Relationships of Central Life Interest Orientation and Subcategories of Experience

The over-all central life interest of officers participating in the present study is related to their central life interest orientation according to the four subcategories of behavior. That is, if the officer has an over-all central life interest that is job-oriented, he will most likely be job-oriented regarding his informal relations, general personal satisfactions, formal organizational experiences, and technological experiences.

4. Relationship Between Central Life Interest Orientation and Demographic Variables

For the most part, demographic variables appear to be of little use in explaining differences in the central life interests of officers participating in this study.

5. Relationship Between Central Life Interest and Job Satisfaction

The majority of the officers participating in this study are apparently satisfied with their work. Specifically, the majority of the officers who have either a job-oriented or no preference central life interest are satisfied with their work. On the other hand, the majority

of those who are non-job-oriented are dissatisfied with their work. In addition, given the small number of officers whose over-all central life interest is job-oriented, there seems to be little correlation between being satisfied with one's work and being job-oriented.

6. Sources of Attachment to Work

Although 20 of the top 25 sources of attachment to work are associated with the general category entitled "work place objects and human conditions" and "systems of the work environment," sources of attachment to work associated with the general category entitled "payoffs" are relatively more important to the officers participating in this study. Specifically, two of the top three work attachment items are related to the "payoffs" general category. They include "take home pay" (ranked second), which falls under the subcategory entitled "money;" and "Army benefits" (ranked third), which falls under the subcategory entitled "perquisites."

However, the most important source of attachment to work for the officers participating in this study is "challenging or interesting work," which falls under the subcategory entitled "autonomy." The latter is associated

with the "work place objects and human conditions" general category. Therefore, even though these officers assign great importance to their pay and benefits, it is evident that "challenging or interesting work" is their number one concern.

7. Relationship Between the Ranking of the Top 25 Work Attachment Items and Demographic Variables

The following demographic variables proved to be significantly related to the ranking differences among the top 25 work attachment items: age, level of education, time in grade, year of commission, amount of command experience, amount of combat experience, and whether or not an officer is a supervisor or has been a battalion commander. More than any other, demographic variables associated with age and those that imply having responsibility account for consistent differences in the ranking of the top 25 work attachment items.

Generally speaking, it appears that among the officers who participated in this study the older respondents and those who occupy positions of responsibility are more concerned with work attachment items related to tasks. However, the younger officers and/or those not occupying

positions of responsibility are more concerned with work attachment items related to people issues.

8. Relationship Between the Ranking
of the Top 25 Work Attachment
Items and Job Satisfaction

Officers in this study who are satisfied or dissatisfied with their work are differentially attached to features of their work, and ranked the top 25 work attachment items accordingly.

Although both groups regard as important work attachment items within the subcategories entitled "organization" and "autonomy," there are significant ($p < .01$) differences in the specific features of their work to which they are attached. The satisfied group are more concerned with the "efficiency of their unit" ("organization") and "learning new things" ("autonomy"). The dissatisfied group, on the other hand, are more concerned with "the organization's treatment of its people" ("organization") and "a chance to use what they have learned" ("autonomy"). In essence, satisfied officers reflect a greater concern with the task and learning new things, while the dissatisfied officers are more interested in people issues and a chance to use what they have learned. Unfortunately, we cannot really

go beyond this point in our conclusion because identifying a particular item as a source of work attachment does not necessarily connote either a positive or negative view. All that we can really conclude is that it is important to the individual.

9. Relationship Between the Ranking of the Top 25 Work Attachment Items and Central Life Interest

Although there are differences in the ranking of the top 25 work attachments according to central life interest orientation, the relationship is not significant ($p > .05$).

10. Differences Between the Ranking of All 100 Work Attachment Items and Central Life Interest

When reviewing all of the 100 work attachment items, those associated with the subcategories entitled "power" and "product" most frequently account for ranking differences. This is particularly true when comparing job-oriented officers with those who are either non-job-oriented or have no preference in their central life interest orientation. More specifically, job-oriented officers appear to be more concerned with "power" than the other two groups. To a lesser extent, those with a

no preference central life interest are more concerned with "product" than the other two groups.

Interpretation

The most surprising finding of this study is the configuration of the central life interest orientation of the officers sampled. This is principally a descriptive study and it was not the author's intention to put forth any hypotheses. However, because of the relatively high proportion of job-oriented middle managers and professionals found in other central life interest studies, and because of the traditional and almost sacrosanct concept of "duty, honor, country" in the military, one would guess that the officers studied would be primarily job-oriented. But the findings are quite the contrary and unexpected.

There are a number of factors which could possibly explain why the proportion of job-oriented officers is so low, and the proportion of officers with a no preference orientation is relatively high. It should be stressed, however, that the presentation of these factors only provides possible explanations and is by no means exhaustive.

Of the number of possible explanations relative to the low proportion of job-oriented officers, the first has to do with the number of changes that are being imposed on both the Military Academy and the Staff College by higher headquarters. With the imposition of change from the outside, there is bound to be some resistance to it and a lessening of organizational commitment.

Specifically, as a result of the recent cheating scandal at the Military Academy, the staff and faculty have had to implement changes recommended by the Borman Commission (Special Commission, 1976) that has required significant adjustments on their part. These adjustments resulted from changes in the tradition-bound honor code, the grading system, curriculum, organizational structure and roles, and privileges accorded to cadets.

At the Staff College, in recent years changes in military tactics, organizational structure, personnel administration, and logistical procedures has resulted in major changes in curriculum, publications, and training. Very often, those personnel required to institute these changes are faculty members who

accomplish this task as an extra duty, which detracts from their principal duty--teaching.

In sum, when a substantial amount of change is imposed from the outside, higher headquarters, the resulting change in one's routine, the assumption of additional duties, and the unpopularity of the change may very well negatively influence the job orientation of members of the organization.

The fact that most of the officers assigned to these institutions are representative of the Army's best may ironically account for the small number of job-oriented respondents. As was previously mentioned, in order to be assigned to the Military Academy or the Staff College, an officer usually has to have an excellent record of performance in both command and staff positions. Because of this, there is a good chance that the officers in question have occupied positions of relative importance and high visibility. Specifically, most have commanded units of 100 men or men and women, and have been key operations, personnel, logistics, or intelligence staff officers anywhere from battalion to division level.

To have previously occupied positions of such responsibility and to now find oneself functioning "merely" as a member of a teaching committee may be quite a let-down for some. It is somewhat like going from being a company commander to being a member of a squad. This is not to suggest that teaching cadets or mid-level officers is not an important responsibility. However, if an officer is used to being associated with a role that he perceives to be more challenging, there is a good chance that he will invest much of his energies in non-work rather than work activities.

If this is the nature of the officer's perception, it may account for why the work attachment item "challenging or interesting work" is ranked number one among the features of work considered important by the respondents.

With particular reference to the Military Academy, the low proportion of job-oriented respondents may be a reflection of some of the officers' disappointment with what they are actually able to do as instructors. Most come directly out of graduate school where they have been exposed to a relatively liberal academic environment, only to find themselves teaching in a

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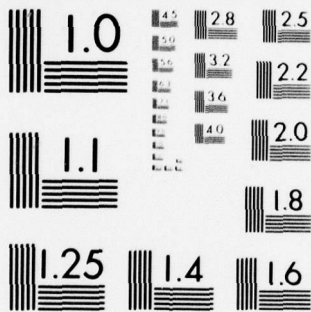
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relatively conservative and restrictive academic environment. They may have expectations about what particular subjects they would like to teach, how they may want to teach, paradigms they would like to emphasize, and a particular philosophy relative to grading. However, they soon discover that the institution dictates much of the above. In addition, while at graduate school, the officer may also find that he is interested in pursuing research in a particular subject area, and discouragingly come to realize that in order for him to do this, he must sacrifice his off-duty time.

All of this may have a diminishing affect on the investment he makes in his work, and cause him to locate his central life interests elsewhere. This, in part, may be substantiated by the fact that those who indicated that they are dissatisfied with their work ranked the work attachment item "chance to use what I have learned" higher than those who are satisfied with their work.

The impact of the Vietnam War may be another factor accounting for the low proportion of job-oriented responses. As a result of unfavorable press coverage during the war, and the popularized anti-military

sentiment that has prevailed in our society, the prestige of the military has suffered. In the eyes of many, those who were once viewed as heroes are now viewed as villains. This is particularly true among younger people (Bachman & Blair, 1976, p. 235), who were also the recipients of a great deal of publicity. Although the negative perception of the military did improve somewhat after the Vietnam War, research conducted by Inglehart indicates that "we may be witnessing a gradual but protracted erosion of public support for military institutions" (1976, p. 277).

The point to be made is that if the respondents feel that they are not appreciated or held in esteem by the public, they may be less job-oriented and more non-job-oriented. Evidence supporting the notion that officers are concerned with how they are viewed by the public can be found in that part of this study that deals with work attachment and in research conducted by McLaughlin and Butler (1973, p. 355).

In the present study, a work attachment item associated with status was ranked among the top 25 work attachment items. In the McLaughlin and Butler study regarding the perceived importance of various job

characteristics by West Point graduates, it was found that those job characteristics pertaining to one's reputation was ranked higher than any of the other job characteristics.

Huntington provides yet another possible explanation as to why so few officers have a job oriented central life interest:

The technological and strategic revolutions require the military profession to have officers of both high quality and career commitment. These two characteristics, however, can be inversely related. In general, the more intelligent, the more highly educated and the more intensely trained an officer is, the less likely he is to be highly committed to a professional military career. (1963, p. 789)

The kind of officer Huntington speaks of is well represented in the sample used in this study.

That they may not be highly committed, and quite possibly non-job-oriented, is evidenced by the number of officers who are spending a lot of their off-duty time working on advanced academic degrees. What is significant about this is that the courses of instruction that they are pursuing, in many instances, have little to do with their work. Another piece of evidence is that one very seldom hears of mid-level

officers talking about a 30-year career. More often than not, conversation centers around "20 years and out to start a second career."

It was pointed out earlier in this study that the military is somewhat like a total institution. Military people very often live and work on a military reservation separated from the civilian community, and because the military provides for many of their needs. However, it would be incorrect to assume that because of this, they would be more job-oriented than otherwise. Included in that so-called total institution are a number of non-work activities available, particularly leisure activities. So, even though the officer lives in a total institution of sorts, it does not necessarily follow that he will be job-oriented.

As far as the military is concerned, being part of a total institution does not imply that officers have limited contact with his civilian brethren. According to Janowitz:

. . . military officers participate more extensively in community affairs than do their counterparts in business. . . . The officer tends more often than his counterpart in the business organization to think of himself as higher in the social status system. . . . As a result, he displays the greater

community involvement associated with higher social status. (1969, p. 20)

With this kind of involvement, both on- and off-post, it is evident that in actuality "the concept of total institution applies more to barracks life and combat duty than to the work situations in which the various auxiliary functions are performed" (Lang, 1965, p. 849).

The fact that only one of every six officers sampled has a job-oriented central life interest may cause alarm in some circles. Particularly in light of the importance the military has attached to the phrase "duty, honor, country." Implicit in this phrase is the notion of self-sacrifice and mission accomplishment at all costs. Therefore, to be other than job-oriented would be contrary to such a philosophy.

It is not the author's belief that our officers are no longer concerned with their duty or lacking in a sense of responsibility in their work. It will be remembered that even though a small proportion of the respondents have a job-oriented central life interest, over half are still job-oriented in relation to their formal organizational and technological experiences.

Of the majority of the officers sampled, those with a no preference central life interest approach their work differently. To say that an officer has no preference regarding his central life interests does not necessarily mean that his work is unimportant to him. It would be more accurate to propose that the majority of the officers participating in this study do not have their central life interest focused in any single institution--they have a flexible focus.

In this regard, recent research conducted by Dubin et al. (1976) indicates that a no preference central life interest or "flexible focus," as they call it, may in fact be the healthiest orientation to have. They state:

Individuals with flexible focus CLI may be the adaptive citizens of the future. These individuals are not alienated. They are able to adjust to any behavioral setting by varying their degree of commitment to it in accordance with the specific features of that setting that are particularly attractive to them. A flexible focus CLI permits an individual to make frequent and rapid changes from one behavioral setting to another, regardless of how different they are. (1975, p. 420)

If one were to take a close look at an officer's career, the need for a no preference or "flexible focus"

orientation becomes evident. For the most part, an officer can expect to be assigned to another military post within the continental United States or some place overseas every three years, and in some instances only after a year has passed. In addition, while at a particular military post it is not unusual for the officer to have two or three different jobs. He could be a company commander for one year, a personnel staff officer the next, and the director of a division training school the next. Because of this, it is to the officer's, and the Army's advantage, to have a no preference/flexible focus central life interest.

Evidence of this can also be found in their training for combat situations and in actual combat. Adaptability is the key to success: "Hence, the military organization gears its practices to anticipate every possible contingency. To do otherwise would be to court defeat in war . . ." (Lang, 1965, p. 856).

The importance assigned to adaptability has also been voiced by General Eisenhower. He is quoted as saying that "The commander's success will be measured more by his ability to lead than by his adherence to fixed notions" (Department of Defense, n.d., p. 116).

The Defense Department goes on to say: "Thus in the conduct of operations not less than in the execution of orders, it is necessary that the mind remain plastic and impressionable" (n.d., p. 116).

The reader is reminded that there is a statistically significant ($p < .05$) relationship between an officer's central life interests and his Army branch of service. This finding provides evidence which supports the above discussion. Specifically, the findings show that the majority of combat officers have a no preference central life interest, while less than half of the combat support and combat service support officers have the same orientation. That combat officers have a higher no preference orientation can possibly be attributed to the fact that they, more than officers assigned to the other two branches, face situations of lesser certainty, which requires greater flexibility and immediacy of response. The role and situations faced by the combat support and combat service support officer are more fixed and predictable.

The prevalence of a no preference or non-job-orientation may be attributed to changes that are taking place in the Army community.

The armed forces have gradually shifted from an institution in which the majority of the personnel were single to one in which a majority are married. Moreover, the patterns of marriage and the age structure of the military are such that military families while on active duty have children at home. Thus, there has been a pronounced shift in the internal structure of the armed forces as they emerge as a familistic institution. (Goldman, 1976, p. 119)

Because of this, the notion of being on call 24 hours a day has become more myth than fact.

Commanders support the idea of officers having and being with their families. To do otherwise could very easily affect the effectiveness of the officer's participation in the organization. Consequently, when given the choice, an officer may very well put his family before his job as the preferred arena for experiencing a variety of activities. The family is partially responsible for the extensive number of non-work activities taking place on military reservations, all of which detract from the centrality of work to varying degrees.

Closely related to the role that the family plays in the Army is the importance assigned to such work attachment items as "take home pay" and "Army benefits." In order to enjoy one's family in today's

society and participate in the myriad of leisure activities, one needs money. Supporting one's family also brings into importance Army benefits such as free health care for dependents, post exchange and commissary privileges, government quarters, and a liberal retirement plan.

The importance assigned to pay and benefits can also be attributed to action by the federal government in establishing the all-volunteer force. In his proposal that the military is shifting from an institution to an occupation, Moskos reports the following:

Instead of a military system anchored in the normative values of an institution, captured in words like 'duty, honor, country,' the Gates Commission explicitly argued that primary reliance in recruiting an armed force should be on monetary inducements guided by marketplace standards. (1977, p. 44)

On the other hand, since the end of the Vietnam War, there has been increasing pressure from the Congress to cut spending in the military, particularly in the area of personal benefits. For example, some members of Congress are calling for an overhaul of the current retirement plan so that members of the armed forces would have to contribute to their retirement; elimination

of post exchange and commissary subsidies, and reducing health care for dependents.

It is only natural to expect military personnel to be concerned about losing what has been understood as being part of their contract in exchange for the risks the job may entail. In addition, the importance assigned to pay and benefits is maintained, and may be even intensified by the publicity it receives from the Army Times, a weekly, unofficial newspaper published exclusively for an Army audience. In a review of four recent issues (February 20, 27, March 6 and 13), an average of 20 articles per copy focused on either pay or benefits, or both. In light of this, it can also be suggested that there is a possible connection between the low proportion of job-oriented officers and the feared erosion of Army benefits.

Whenever the results of research turn out to be a good deal different from previous studies, one must question the validity of the instrument used in collecting the data. Is it really measuring what is supposed to be measured? Although the wording in the questionnaire was revised so that it would be more applicable to the military, one could argue that the

situations portrayed are still more suitable for business and industry than the military.

The results of the study may also, in part, be a reflection of the respondents' resistance to forced choice questions. The author interviewed several officers who either participated in the pilot study or the present study. More often than not, these officers indicated discomfort with being "forced" to answer questions which they felt gave them little opportunity to indicate how they really felt about a particular question. Others also indicated that some of the situations portrayed in the questionnaire did not apply to them. However, such is the nature of forced choice questions. Not all questions are meant to fit exactly the respondent's situation or give him the opportunity to express his opinion freely.

Finally, the results may also be influenced by socially desirable responses. In other words, one might perceive that the proper thing to do is to take a middle of the road approach instead of responding in either of the opposite extremes, in this case, job or non-job.

As previously mentioned in Chapter II, there are several conceptual models, among others, that seek

to explain the nature of individual-organizational linkages. Some are grounded in psychological theory and others in sociological theory, with the former focusing primarily on the individual and the latter focusing primarily on organizational perspectives. Dubin's (1956) central life interest theory presents us with a broader perspective. One that takes into consideration 1) the fact that in today's modern industrial society individuals have linkages to many organizations; and 2) there are varying features of an organization that may be of interest to the individual.

In this study we found support for Dubin's central life interest theory. Analysis of the data indicates that the majority of the officers who participated in this study are attached to certain aspects of their work, even though it may not be their central life interest. Further, it is evident that, because the majority are either non-job-oriented or have a no preference orientation, there are other institutions/activities which they may regard as their central life interest.

Dubin's central life interest theory and the results of this study suggests that by restricting our

focus to either the individual or organizational perspectives that assume that individuals are job-oriented, we may be limiting our understanding of individual-organizational linkages. We are affected by other social institutions which, in turn, is related to the importance we attach to our work and work place.

Implications for Further Research

1. Because the findings of this study are rather surprising, it would be useful to replicate the study within the same or similar organizational context to confirm or clarify the results of the present study.
2. Since this is the first central life interest study conducted within the military, there still exists a need to conduct similar central life interest studies with other types of military organizations and populations. This would not only test the results of the present study, it would also help to determine just how much of one's central life interest orientation is an organizational phenomenon. Suggested organizations to study include: The Pentagon, a division

staff, a combat unit, combat support unit, and a combat service support unit. It would also be interesting to study an Army facility that employs an equal number of military and civilian personnel.

3. Another issue worthy of investigation is whether or not these results are a phenomenon associated with working within a federal bureaucracy. Therefore, it would be useful to extend the study of central life interests to another federal bureaucracy, such as the State Department.
4. Although Dubin's central life interest theory provides a relatively broad perspective for understanding individual-organizational linkages, there is yet another step that could be taken to further our understanding of this phenomenon. This step involves looking at how one's involvement in non-work activities is related to individual-organizational linkages. In other words, to better understand this phenomenon in work settings, there is a need for research that focuses on 1) joining and remaining involved with a non-work activity,

and 2) the degree of attachment a person has to the non-work activity.

For instance, if a person is non-job-oriented, then what are his/her specific central life interests? Is he family-oriented, non-family-oriented, or has no preference? The same question can be asked regarding other non-work activities. Is he/she community organization-oriented, non-community organization-oriented, or has no preference relative to community organizations.

Next we need to ascertain what features of these activities are important to the individual. And finally, how are these activities collectively related to preferences for enacting behaviors in a particular setting--be it (they) family, leisure, religious, community organization, work or any other activity. The point is that, since we live in a society of multi-equal institutions that are interdependent (Dubin, 1976, pp. 11-15), we need to better understand how they are related to individual-organizational linkages in general.

Implications for the
U. S. Army

1. In recent years, the Army has made a significant investment in organization development programs. Although not specifically stated, some of these programs assume that organizational members are or should be job-oriented. Assuming that the results of the present study will be validated through additional research, it may be useful for the Army to recognize that some of its members may be non-job-oriented or have a no preference orientation, and tailor its organization development interventions accordingly. In other words, before making an intervention it may be appropriate to determine what members of the organization are job-oriented, or have a no preference orientation. This could then be followed by interventions suited to each group.
2. The results of this study may also serve as a reminder to Army officials that, above all, the officers who participated in this study view "challenging or interesting work" as the

most important feature of their work environment. It would be to the Army's benefit to consider this in their development of officer training programs and assigning duties to officers.

3. Finally, the results of the present study should serve as an indication to the members of Congress and other federal officials, the importance Army officers attribute to pay and benefits.

Limitations

Generalizability of the results of this study is limited by the following factors:

1. Generalizations can only be made in reference to the population under study. In this case the population under study is that group of officers assigned to the staff and faculty of the United States Military Academy and the U. S. Army Command and Staff College. The results of this study do not apply to the U. S. Army in general.
2. Further, the sample consisted of only captains, majors, and lieutenant

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colonels assigned to the Military Academy and the Staff College. Therefore generalizations should not include references to enlisted men, lieutenants or general officers assigned to these institutions.

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3. Since the questionnaires were administered by second and third party representatives, there was little control of the conditions under which the questionnaires were completed. Because of this, and the CLI questionnaire's 10 per cent error of measurement, generalizations based on the reported proportions must be made with caution.
 4. This study is not longitudinal. It, therefore, is only representative of a snapshot of a specific group of officers' preferences regarding their central life interest orientations and their various sources of attachment to work.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE QUESTIONNAIRES

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
AREA OF EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Fellow Officer:

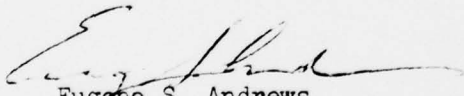
I am currently working on my dissertation at Syracuse University and would appreciate your cooperation in the conduct of my research.

This is a study of the manner in which a representative group of Army officers view their work. The conclusions drawn from this study will provide the Army with a more accurate picture of the Army officer and his relationship to his work.

There are three inclosures attached. The first inclosure deals with personal information; however, please note that the nature of the data collected allows me in no way to identify you individually. The other two inclosures are questionnaires. All questions can be answered by a simple check mark and take approximately fifteen minutes to complete.

Your replies will be held in strict confidence. This study is purely analytical in nature. Its results will be concerned with the response of officers as a group and not with any single response.

Thank you for your interest and support.



Eugene S. Andrews
Major, Infantry

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Inclosures: 3

PERSONAL INFORMATION

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Rank:	<input type="checkbox"/> 01 <input type="checkbox"/> 02 <input type="checkbox"/> 03 <input type="checkbox"/> 04 <input type="checkbox"/> 05 <input type="checkbox"/> 06	Service Component: <input type="checkbox"/> RA <input type="checkbox"/> USAR
Time in Grade:	<input type="checkbox"/> Months	Highest Level of Education: <input type="checkbox"/> High School Graduate <input type="checkbox"/> Two Year College Graduate <input type="checkbox"/> Four Year College Graduate <input type="checkbox"/> Master's Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Doctorate
Age:	<input type="checkbox"/>	Total Command Time: <input type="checkbox"/> Months
Sex:	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female	Have you commanded a battalion or equivalent size unit or been selected for battalion command: <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
Race:	<input type="checkbox"/> Caucasian <input type="checkbox"/> Black <input type="checkbox"/> Other Minority	Are you currently in a supervisory position: <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
Prior Enlisted Service:	<input type="checkbox"/> Years	Number of people under your supervision/command: <input type="checkbox"/>
Total Time in Service:	<input type="checkbox"/> Years	Total time assigned to Combat Zone: <input type="checkbox"/> Months
Year of Commission:	19 <input type="checkbox"/>	You live: <input type="checkbox"/> On Post (BOQ) <input type="checkbox"/> On Post (Family Housing) <input type="checkbox"/> Off Post
Source of Commission:	<input type="checkbox"/> OCS <input type="checkbox"/> ROTC <input type="checkbox"/> USMA <input type="checkbox"/> Other	
Branch:	<input type="checkbox"/>	
MOS:	<input type="checkbox"/> Primary <input type="checkbox"/> Duty	

INCLOSURE ONE

Below is a series of statements. Each statement has three possible responses. Indicate your answer by a check mark on the line provided. Be sure to check one for each statement, even though none of them exactly fits your own ideas. Choose the response which is closest to your views on the statement.

1. Interruptions bother me
 - ☐ when working at my place of duty
 - ☐ when working at home/BOQ
 - ☐ hardly ever
2. I do my best work
 - ☐ when I am on duty
 - ☐ when I'm not bothered by people
 - ☐ when I work around the house/BOQ or on a post/civilian community project
3. I would rather accept a committee chairmanship
 - ☐ anytime, any place
 - ☐ of an operating or advisory committee in my unit
 - ☐ in a group or club of which I am a member
4. When I am doing some work, I usually try not to waste time
 - ☐ I seldom worry about wasting time
 - ☐ on my job
 - ☐ on a project at home/BOQ, or on post/in the civilian community
5. I believe that
 - ☐ helping my fellow men is more important than anything else
 - ☐ my career is more important than anything else
 - ☐ most things are about equally important
6. In my free time at work, I would rather
 - ☐ talk about whatever comes up
 - ☐ talk about things that I am working on in my job
 - ☐ talk about things that are going on in sports or politics
7. I am most interested in
 - ☐ things about my job
 - ☐ things I usually do around the house/BOQ, or the post/civilian community
 - ☐ just about everything I do

8. I most enjoy keeping
- ☐ my things around the house/BOQ in good shape
 - ☐ my mind off such things
 - ☐ my desk and reports in good shape at the office
9. I prefer to have as friends
- ☐ people I get to know in my work
 - ☐ people who share my leisure interests
 - ☐ different people according to what they like
10. Moving ahead on my job
- ☐ is not so important to me that I would give up time to make contacts and get information about my work
 - ☐ is so important to me that I am willing to spend extra time to make contacts and pick up information about my work
 - ☐ is not particularly important to me
11. If I had an opportunity to move to a better job at another post
- ☐ my friendships wouldn't make any difference in my moving
 - ☐ I would most dislike leaving my friends on the job
 - ☐ I would most dislike leaving my other friends
12. The people that I can count on most when I need help are
- ☐ the friends I have at work
 - ☐ other friends on post/in the civilian community
 - ☐ almost any of my friends
13. When I am worried, it is usually about
- ☐ how well I am doing on the job
 - ☐ just little things
 - ☐ things that happen at home/in the BOQ
14. When I am not with them, the people I miss most are
- ☐ just people in general
 - ☐ my friends with whom I work
 - ☐ other friends on post or in the civilian community
15. I am happier if I am praised for doing a good job of
- ☐ something at work
 - ☐ something in a group or club I belong to
 - ☐ anything, it doesn't matter very much

16. If I were sick and had to stay home/in the BOQ, I would most hate
___ missing a day at work
___ missing almost anything I usually do
___ missing a meeting of a group or club I belong to
17. The most pleasant things I do are concerned with
___ relaxation
___ my work
___ different things at different times
18. I hope my children can
___ work in the same kind of occupation as mine
___ work in any kind of occupation, just so they enjoy their work
___ work in a different kind of occupation from mine
19. In my spare time
___ I just prefer to relax
___ I often think of better ways of doing my work
___ I have a thousand things that need doing
20. I sometimes hope that
___ I'll get special recognition for doing a good job at work
___ I'll get to be a more important member of my club, church,
or lodge
___ such things will not bother me
21. If I need ready cash within a few hours for an emergency on a Sunday
and had to borrow it, I would probably turn to
___ people I know in my unit
___ other people on post/in the civilian community
___ anyone who would lend it to me
22. It is easier for me to take a chewing out
___ from anyone--I listen and forget it
___ from a policeman
___ from my supervisor
23. I would donate more money in the case of a collection
___ if the person collecting the money was a friend of mine
___ for a charitable organization
___ for a wedding present or retirement gift for a colleague
at work

24. If I have to work with someone else who is a slow worker
___ I am annoyed regardless of where we are working
___ I am most annoyed on a job at my place of duty
___ I am most annoyed on a volunteer post/civilian community project
25. In getting a job done, it is most important for me to have enough freedom to plan it
___ on my job
___ on a post/civilian community project
___ anytime, any place
26. I would rather take my vacation with
___ some friends from work
___ my family
___ by myself
27. I most like
___ talking with friends about things that are happening
___ talking about whatever my friends want to talk about
___ talking with my friends about my work and what is happening there
28. In order to get ahead in the world
___ you have to have a lot of luck
___ you have to be well liked where you work
___ you have to be well liked and known on post/civilian community
29. If a unit project I knew about, but was not involved in, gave everybody trouble and I heard another unit had solved the problem
___ I have too many problems of my own to get involved
___ I would tell my supervisor or colleagues about it
___ I don't worry about such things
30. I think that if I were suddenly to get a much better job
___ probably my life would not change much except that I'd live a little better
___ probably my life would change and be better in many ways
___ I wouldn't know what would happen to my life

31. I would much rather be a leader

- ☐ in any organization, just so it's a good one
- ☐ in my club or church
- ☐ in my work

32. I enjoy reading technical articles and books to learn more about

- ☐ only something very special and important
- ☐ my hobby and other interests
- ☐ my job

Check the category which is nearest the feeling you have about your work.

Quite Satisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied

THINGS ABOUT YOUR WORK THAT ARE IMPORTANT TO YOU

This list shows what other people have stated are important features of their work. Not all will apply to you. Check ☒ only those items that are important to you under each heading. Under some headings nothing may fit you and you may have no answers--that's O.K. Remember, we are concerned with what you think is important, not necessarily what you like or dislike, or with what others think. We only want to know the things about work you think are important.

MONEY MATTERS--These things are important to me.

- 121 ☐ Take home pay.
- 122 ☐ Army benefits (health care, pension, etc.).
- 123 ☐ Raises.
- 125 ☐ Pay compared to civilian workers.
- 126 ☐ Holidays and leave time.

WORKING CONDITIONS--These things are important to me.

- 128 ☐ Convenience to work area.
- 129 ☐ How well the facilities are kept.
- 130 ☐ Cleanliness of the work area.
- 131 ☐ Attractiveness of my working area.
- 132 ☐ How safe my work area is.
- 133 ☐ Opportunity for a personal touch to my work area.

THE EQUIPMENT AND METHODS I WORK WITH--These things are important to me.

- 134 ☐ How well mine work compared to others.
- 135 ☐ Their importance in the field or garrison.
- 136 ☐ How modern they are.
- 137 ☐ Their quality.
- 138 ☐ How well they do the job.
- 139 ☐ Using my own, personal equipment.
- 140 ☐ Creating methods to do my job better.
- 141 ☐ Knowing exactly how my equipment works.

MY JOB--These things are important to me.

- 142 ☐ Controlling the number of things I do.
- 143 ☐ Challenging or interesting work.
- 144 ☐ Contributing something to society.
- 145 ☐ How my job compares with others.
- 146 ☐ Chance to move around while working.
- 147 ☐ The particular things I do.
- 148 ☐ Knowing enough to get by.
- 149 ☐ Interruptions in my work.
- 150 ☐ Chance to learn more than one job.
- 151 ☐ Respect from my family and friends because of my job.
- 152 ☐ Seeing the big picture of which I'm a part.
- 153 ☐ Attention I have to pay to my work.
- 154 ☐ Number of people doing the same job.
- 155 ☐ Chance to use what I have learned.
- 156 ☐ Thinking about other things when I am working.
- 157 ☐ Knowing in advance what I will do each day.
- 158 ☐ Having a job that is a "way of life."
- 159 ☐ Learning new things.
- 160 ☐ Controlling the speed at which I work.
- 161 ☐ Being familiar with my job.
- 162 ☐ Variety in my work.
- 163 ☐ Teaching new personnel.
- 164 ☐ How hard I have to work.
- 165 ☐ Training required for my job.
- 166 ☐ Responsibility in my job.
- 167 ☐ Time for personal needs.
- 168 ☐ Doing my job my own way.
- 169 ☐ Skill required to do my job.
- 170 ☐ Physical work I do.
- 171 ☐ Inventing new ways to do my job.
- 172 ☐ Controlling the order in which I do things.

THE KIND OF PROFESSION I'M IN--These things are important to me.

- 173 ☐ The services we provide.
 174 ☐ How good our services are.
 175 ☐ How valuable they are.
 176 ☐ Their importance to our country.
 177 ☐ How difficult our services are to perform.
 178 ☐ How useful they are.
 179 ☐ Seeing the results of our work.

MY UNIT--These things are important to me.

- 221 ☐ Size of my unit.
 223 ☐ My chances for advancement and promotion.
 224 ☐ Hours I work.
 225 ☐ Efficiency of my unit.
 226 ☐ Its treatment of unit personnel.
 227 ☐ The number of supervisors.
 228 ☐ Reputation of the unit.
 229 ☐ Whether they allow time for sports and personal business.
 230 ☐ How exceptional performance is handled.
 231 ☐ How the unit is run.
 232 ☐ How they judge me.
 233 ☐ Knowing what goes on here.
 234 ☐ The nature of my unit's mission.
 235 ☐ Unit policies and regulations.
 236 ☐ Special privileges and considerations I get here.
 237 ☐ How I get along with my supervisors.
 238 ☐ The confidence they have in me.
 239 ☐ How my supervisors give orders.
 240 ☐ Length of service with the unit.
 241 ☐ Being left alone to do my work.
 242 ☐ Facilities in my unit.
 243 ☐ Whether my supervisor does his job.
 44 ☐ Personal contact with commanders/department heads.
 245 ☐ Job security.
 246 ☐ How far I have to travel to get to work.
 247 ☐ How my mistakes are handled.

THE PEOPLE I WORK WITH--These things are important to me.

- 248 ☐ Helping others to do their job.
 249 ☐ How we work together.
 250 ☐ Getting together with them off the job.
 251 ☐ Being left alone by them.
 252 ☐ Whether there are both men and women working here.
 253 ☐ Together we have some control over how our own work is done.
 254 ☐ Whether my friends work here.
 255 ☐ Chances to meet new people.
 256 ☐ "Beating the system" together.
 257 ☐ Talking to others when working.
 258 ☐ How I stand with people I work with.
 259 ☐ Whether they like the same things I do.
 260 ☐ Getting along with them at work.
 261 ☐ What other people get away with.
 262 ☐ The influence I have with my work mates.
 263 ☐ Whether they depend upon the work I do.
 264 ☐ Respect I get from them.

PLEASE CHECK ONCE MORE TO BE SURE
 THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL QUESTIONS.

APPENDIX B

RANKING OF THE WORK ATTACHMENT ITEMS

Rank	Work Attachment Item	Analytical Subcategory	General [*] Category
1	Challenging or interesting work	Autonomy	2
2	Take home pay	Money	3
3	Army benefits	Perquisites	3
4	How we work together	Work Group	1
5	Responsibility in my job	Power	3
6	How well equipment and methods do the job	Technology	2
7	The confidence my unit has in me	Self	1
8	Efficiency of my unit	Organization	1
9	Respect I get from the people I work with	Work Group	1
10	Convenience to work area	Personal Space/ Things	2
11.5	Respect from my family & friends because of my job	Status	3
11.5	Reputation of the unit	Organization	1
13	Importance of my profession to our country	Product	2
14	Unit's treatment of its personnel	Organization	1
15	Seeing the big picture	Industry	1
16	Variety in my work	Autonomy	2
17	Creating methods to do my job better	Craft- Profession	1
18	Contributing something to society	Self	1
19.5	Chance to use what I have learned	Autonomy	2
19.5	Learning new things	Autonomy	2
21	Raises	Money	3
22	How well the facilities are kept	Personal Space/ Things	2
23	Cleanliness of work area	Personal Space/ Things	2

Rank	Work Attachment Item	Analytical Subcategory	General* Category
24	How good our services are	Product	2
25	Quality of equipment and methods	Technology	2
26	How the unit is run	Organization	1
27	Helping others do their job	Power	3
28.5	How useful my services are	Product	2
28.5	Together we have some control over how our own work is done	Work-Group	1
30	Getting along with co-workers at work	Work-Group	1
31	How exceptional performance is handled	Status	3
32	Doing my job my own way	Craft-Profession	1
33	Being familiar with my job	Routine	2
34	Knowing what goes on in my unit	Organization	1
35	Time for personal needs	Self	1
36	Holidays and leave time	Perquisites	3
37	How I get along with my supervisors	Power	3
38	Knowing exactly how my equipment works	Technology	2
39.5	Seeing the results of our work	Product	2
39.5	How my unit judges me	Authority	3
41	The nature of my unit's mission	Organization	1
42.5	Controlling the order in which I do things	Autonomy	2
42.5	How valuable my services are	Product	2
44.5	Opportunity for a personal touch in my work area	Personal Space/Things	2
44.5	Being left alone to do my work	Self	1

Rank	Work Attachment Item	Analytical Subcategory	General* Category
46.5	My chances for advancement and promotion	Career	1
46.5	How I stand with the people I work with	Work Group	1
48.5	Chance to move around while working	Authority	3
48.5	The services we provide	Product	2
50.5	Inventing new ways to do my job	Craft-Profession	1
50.5	The influence I have with my work mates	Power	3
52.5	Controlling the number of things I do	Autonomy	2
52.5	How my mistakes are handled	Authority	3
54	Whether my work mates depend on the work I do	Power	3
55.5	Attractiveness of my working area	Personal Space/Things	2
55.5	Whether my unit allows time for sports and personal business	Perquisites	3
57	Chance to learn more than one job	Career	3
58	How safe my work area is	Personal Space/Things	2
59	Hours I work	Self	1
60	Teaching new personnel	Power	3
61.5	How well my equipment and methods work compared to others	Technology	2
61.5	Skill required to do my job	Self	1
63	How my supervisors give orders	Routine	2
64	Pay compared to civilian workers	Money	3
65	Personal contact with commanders/Department heads	Self	1

Rank	Work Attachment Item	Analytical Subcategory	General* Category
66	The particular things I do	Craft-Profession	1
68	The importance of my equipment and methods in the field or garrison	Technology	2
68	Controlling the speed at which I work	Autonomy	2
68	How far I have to travel to get to work	Self	1
70	Whether my supervisor does his job	Power	3
71	Unit policies and regulations	Organization	1
72	Talking to others when working	Work Group	1
73	Chances to meet new people	Work Group	1
74	Having a job that is a way of life	Career	3
75	Job security	Perquisites	3
76	Getting together with work mates off the job	Work Group	2
77	Training required for my job	Craft-Profession	1
78	Facilities in my unit	Perquisites	3
79	Knowing in advance what I will do each day	Routine	2
80.5	Interruptions in my work	Routine	2
80.5	The number of supervisors	Autonomy	2
82	How modern my equipment and methods are	Technology	2
83	Attention I have to pay to my work	Self	1
84	How my job compares with others	Status	3
85	How hard I have to work	Self	1
86	Special privileges and considerations I get here	Perquisites	3

Rank	Work Attachment Item	Analytical Subcategory	General* Category
87	How difficult our services are to perform	Craft-Profession	1
88	Physical work I do	Self	1
89	Using my own, personal equipment	Personal Space/Things	2
90	What other people get away with	Work Group	1
91	Whether my friends work here	Work Group	1
92	Size of my unit	Organization	1
93	Whether my work mates like the same things I do	Work Group	1
94.5	Length of service with the unit	Career	3
94.5	Whether there are both men and women working here	Work Group	1
96.5	Thinking about other things when I am working	Self	1
96.5	Being left alone by my work mates	Self	1
98	Number of people doing the same job	Power	3
99	Knowing enough to get by	Routine	2
100	"Beating the system" with my work mates	Work Group	1

*1--Systems of the work environment

2--Work place objects and human conditions

3--Payoffs

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